THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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The Tragedies of Sophocles Tranſlated. 4to. 1*l.* 1*s.* *in Boards.* Robinſons.

IN our XLVth volume, p. 241 and 339, we gave ſome account of Mr. Potter's excellent tranſlation of Æſchylus; to whom, in his declining days, Sophocles became a rival for theatrical fame, and in his firſt compoſition won the prize againſt him. Of the ſeventy, or, as ſome ſuppoſe, ninety tragedies of the former, ſeven alone have eſcaped the depredations of time. Of the hundred and thirteen attributed to Sophocles, the ſame number only remain. From theſe, however, their comparative merits may be pretty accurately decided. In judgment and purity of diction the ſuperiority muſt be aſſigned to Sophocles; but he falls ſhort of his predeceſſor in energy and grandeur of conception. The numbers of Sophocles may be equal, in ſmoothneſs and harmony, to thoſe of Rowe: they are certainly often more majeſtic and varied in their cadence. Thoſe of Æſchylus are frequently turgid and unequal; but, with all his defects, he may be conſidered as the Shakſpeare of Greece, who, by the force of innate genius, ſoared to heights unattainable by his leſs adventurous competitor. This, if the juſtice of our remark be allowed, may ſomewhat account, without detracting from Mr. Potter's merit, for our meeting with fewer paſſages in this work that make any ſtriking impreſſion on our minds than in his verſion of Æſchylus. To transfuſe ſome portion of his ſpirit into our language muſt, we think, have been an eaſier taſk than to heighten, or even preſerve, the more chaſtiſed and uniform beauties of Sophocles. The noble and glowing paſſages in the firſt are undoubtedly blended with others that are turgid or triſling: but even this inequality would lead a man of taſte, like Mr. Potter, to emulate the former, and ſoften the latter. In Sophocles, where with fewer defects there appears (at leaſt to us) leſs genuine excellence, he will ſhew it by adhering to the original, and by not hazarding any additional embelliſhments. Mr. Potter has accordingly profeſſed that he is faithful to the original, and *in no ſmall degree correct*, owing to the reviſal of a learned

friend. Notwithſtanding his declaration, that this work from a taſk became an amuſement, and then a pleaſure, it appears to us to have been laboured more, but leſs *con amore*, than his tranſlation of Æſchylus. Here he ſeems anxious to avoid faults, but in that he aimed at introducing beauties, and ſometimes kindled into a blaze from a ſpark in the original.

We have no reaſon, in general, to diſpute Mr. Potter's aſſertion as to fidelity; but he is often literal to a fault.

'*Antigone.* ——— What can I ſay?
May this be ſhe? or is my ſight deceived?
I doubt, then am aſſured, then doubt again:
I doubt no more: 'tis ſhe, 'tis ſhe herſelf:
Her eyes look chearful on me, and her ſmile,
As ſhe draws near, aſſures me it is ſhe;
It is my dear Iſmene, and none elſe.'

Antigone is here repreſented as doubting five times, and poſitive ſeven, in leſs than ſeven lines. Some flat and inelegant paſſages, which his learned friend ſhould have corrected, might be pointed out.

'*Antigone.* Wilt thou I go,
And what the place enquire?
Oedipus. Such is my wiſh,
If near us it hath habitants, my child.
Antigone. It is inhabited: but that I go
Needs not; for near us I behold a man.
Oedipus. Doth he advance, and hither ſpeed his ſteps?
Antigone. He is e'en preſent; what th' occaſion then
Prompts thee to ſay, ſpeak, for the man is here.'

Nothing ſurely can be more inſipid. '*Unhuſbanded*' is literal to ανανδρος, but it ſounds harſhly; ſo does '*mounted* and *fill'd* his mother's bed,' applied to Oedipus. *Behoves* is a favourite word, and often improperly uſed without any prepoſition.

'Behoves me then a brief reply.'
'Behoves thee now *aſſert this ſplendid praiſe.*'

See likewiſe, p. 215, p. 136, p. 572, p. 78, p. 144, p. 149. Again: how unworthy of Mr. Potter are ſuch expreſſions as the following?

'*Ch.* To what now wilt thou *turn* thee?
Creon. I will ſeize
And bear this old man hence.
Ch. A *perilous threat.*'
'To ſomething dreadful was a *Proeme.*'
'He ravin'd for his prey.'
'—— but *obſcure unſearch'd tracts,*
In *ſome dark fate appearing* ſnatch'd him hence.'
'—— to *rend* the rampires to the ground.'

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'——our brothers now, *both* ſlain
Each by the other's ſpear, unhappy youths,
Have in one day one *common fate atchiev'd.*
We now *remain* ſole *reliques* of our houſe.'

A meſſenger ſays to Creon,

'E'en tho' I tell thee nothing I will ſpeak.'

Well, therefore, may Creon afterwards obſerve,

'What a *quaint* prater this!'

When again he aſks the Chorus in regard to Oedipus,

'Roll'd his eye wild, diſorder'd ſeem'd his ſenſe,
Againſt me when this hated charge was urged?'

he replies;

'I know not; for it is not mine to ſee
What princes do. But this way comes the king.'

This we allow to be no uncharacteriſtic ſpeech for an old courtier, and it is ſufficiently exact to the original: Franklin, however, by a little amplification, avoided the ludicrous appearance it now poſſeſſes.

'I cannot ſay;
'Tis not for me to know the thoughts of kings,
Or judge their actions.'

Of the ſame kind is that paſſage where Oedipus enquires of the herdſman if he knew the old Corinthian ſhepherd. Unwilling to acknowlege it, he anſwers,

'My memory fails,—I cannot ſpeak at once.'

Franklin, with more juſtice and propriety, renders it,

——— 'I cannot ſay
I recollect it now.'

We do not mean to inſinuate, by pointing out ſome defective lines, and giving the preference, in the two trifling paſſages above, to Dr. Franklin's tranſlation, that his poſſeſſes a decided ſuperiority over the preſent:—that is certainly not the caſe, neither do we think his reputation will ſuffer much by the compariſon. To examine the two tranſlations accurately and minutely would be a taſk no leſs laborious than unpleaſant: we ſhall therefore extract the ſame paſſage from this which we did from Dr. Franklin's in our VIIth volume, p. 516, and leave the reader to judge for himſelf. It is much celebrated for its ſublimity and horror, but we think inferior in both reſpects to the concluſion of the Choephoræ of Æſchylus, in emulation of which it appears to have been written. The remorſe and ſudden ſtarts of madneſs in Oreſtes, in the

latter play, though ſlightly ſketched, affect the mind in no common degree.

CHORUS.

STROPHE.

'See this Mars againſt his foes
Breathing ſlaughter furious goes.
Faithful to the ſcent of blood
On him waits a ravening brood,
Dogs of hell, with eager chace
Train'd the murd'rers ſteps to trace:
On they ruſh with horrid joy,
Keen, and certain to deſtroy.
Did not this my ſoul preſage?
Slumbers now his vengeful rage?

ANTISTROPHE.

See him prompt to aid the dead,
Range theſe courts with ſecret tread.
O'er each room his eyes are roll'd,
Scenes of royal pomp, of old
With his father's treaſures ſtor'd.
Fierce he graſps his keen-edged ſword.
Hermes, brooking no delay,
Leads him on the deſtined way;
And the great avenger ſhrouds,
Guileful, in a veil of clouds.

ELECTRA, CHORUS.

Electra. My deareſt friends, they now are in the act,
E'en now: in ſilence then await th' event.
Chorus. How! Tell us all. What are they doing now?
Electra. A cauldron for the burial ſhe prepares,
And they ſtand nigh.
Chorus. Why hither art thou come?
Electra. To watch: that ſhould Ægiſthus chance to come,
He may not enter ere they are aware.
Clytemneſtra, within. O miſerable me! Beneath this roof
Have I no friends? Are none but murderers here?
Electra. One cries within. Hark! Hear you not my friends?
Chorus. I heard; and ſhuddering horror chills my blood.
Clyt. within. Where art thou, O Ægyſthus! Wretched me!
Electra. Again that piercing cry!
Clyt. within. My ſon, my ſon
Have pity on thy mother!
Electra. But from thee
He found no pity, none his father found.
Chorus. Unhappy realm! Unhappy race! Now fate,
Day after day deſtroys thee, quite deſtroys.
Clyt. within. Oh! I am wounded.
Electra. If thou canſt, repeat
That ſtroke.

Clyt.

Clyt. within. Ah wretched me, another wound!
Electra. Oh that Ægiſthus had like cauſe to groan!
Chorus. The curſe now haſtes to be fulfill'd: they live,
Who lie beneath the earth; and ſtreams of blood
The dead, from thoſe who ſhed their blood, exact.

ORESTES, PYLADES, ELECTRA, CHORUS.

Electra. See, they are here, their hands diſtain'd with blood
From the firſt victim of their fury pour'd.
I need not aſk, Oreſtes, what is done.
Oreſtes. All is well done within theſe gates, if well
The oracle commanded. She is dead,
The wretched woman. Henceforth fear no more
Diſgraceful inſults from thy mother's pride.
Chorus. Forbear. Ægiſthus plainly I perceive.
Electra. Go back, with ſpeed go back.
Oreſtes. See you this man?
Comes he upon us?
Electra. He will ſoon be here;
Rejoicing from the ſuburbs he returns.
Chorus. Retire within the portal: as before
You well conducted that attempt, ſo now——
Oreſtes. Fear not: we will effect it to thy wiſh.
Electra. Nay, linger not a moment.
Oreſtes. I am gone.

ELECTRA, CHORUS.

Electra. What here th' occaſion calls for, be my care.
This man then—It were well to ſooth his ear
With a few gentle words, that he may ruſh
Without a thought on their avenging ſwords.

ÆGISTHUS, ELECTRA, CHORUS.

Ægiſthus. Where are thoſe Phocian ſtrangers, who, I hear,
Have brought the tidings that amidſt the wreck
Of claſhing cars Oreſtes breath'd his laſt?
Which of you knows? Of thee I aſk, of thee,
Thee in times paſt of ſoul untamed: as thee
It moſt imports, thou canſt inform me beſt.
Electra. Too well I know: I were a ſtranger elſe
To what concerns the deareſt of my friends.
Ægiſthus. Where are the ſtrangers? Tell me.
Electra. Enter'd here,
And welcome gueſts.
Ægiſthus. What, ſpoke they of his death
As certain?
Electra. What convinces more than words,
They brought undoubted proof.
Ægiſthus. May I behold
That proof which carries certainty?
Electra. Thou may'ſt:
That ſight thy envy will not raiſe.

Ægiſthus. Great joy
Thou giveſt me now: not ſuch hath been thy wont.
Electra. Go then; if this can give thee joy, rejoice.
Ægiſthus, Be ſilent, and ſet wide the gates, that all
Of Argos and Mycenæ may behold:
That if a man of them had in his thoughts
Cheriſh'd vain hopes, he now may view this corſe,
And bear my curb; nor, hardening in his pride,
Draw on his head the terrors of my wrath.
Electra, I know my duty: for by time my mind
Is taught obedience to the ſov'reign pow'rs.
The gates are thrown open; the body of Clytemneſtra lies covered.

ORESTES, PYLADES, ÆGYSTHUS, ELECTRA, CHORUS.

Ægiſthus. O Jove this is a ſight, which hath not fall'n
But to my wiſh, If vengeance waits my joy,
I know not. From the corſe remove the veil,
That he my lamentations may receive,
For nearly to my blood he was allied.
Oreſtes. Remove it thou: thy office this, not mine,
To view, and kindly to addreſs the dead.
Ægiſthus, I will: thou doſt adviſe me well. Go thou,
Call Clytemneſtra. Is ſhe in the houſe?
Oreſtes. Ay, ſhe is near thee; ſeek her not elſewhere.
Ægiſthus, removing the veil. Ah, what a ſight is this!
Oreſtes. Whom doſt thou fear?
Or whom not know?
Ægiſthus, Ah me, amidſt the toils
Of what inſidious hunters am I fall'n!
Oreſtes. Doſt thou not yet perceive that with the dead,
So deem'd by thee, long converſe thou haſt held?
Ægiſthus. Ah me! too well I know it; and theſe words
Can from none other but Oreſtes come.
Oreſtes. Excellent prophet! But thy ſkill before
Deceived thee,
Ægiſthus, I am loſt, in ruin ſunk:
Yet hear me; let me ſpeak; I will be brief.
Electra. No; hear him not, my brother; by the gods,
Hear no protracted ſpeech. What would a wretch
Plunged in the midſt of evils, and to death
Devoted, profit by a ſhort delay?
No; let him die this inſtant, and when dead
Obtain ſuch burial as his deeds deſerve,
Far from our ſight: for all his former wrongs
To me this vengeance only can atone.
Oreſtes. Enter the gates this inſtant; for not words
Muſt now decide the conteſt, but thy life.
Ægiſthus. Within theſe walls why lead me? If the deed
Be juſt and noble, why in darkneſs done?
Thy hand is ready, why not kill me here?

Oreſtes,

Oreſtes. Give not the law to me. Go; where thy hand
Murder'd my father, there thy blood ſhall flow.
Ægiſthus. This is of ſtrong neceſſity: this houſe
Muſt ſee the preſent and the future ills
Doom'd to the race of Pelops by the fates.
Oreſtes. Ills doom'd to thee: prophetic is my voice.
Ægiſthus. Thou canſt not from thy father boaſt this ſkill.
Oreſtes. No more replies; no more delays: away.
Ægiſthus. Lead thou the way.
Oreſtes. Before me thou ſhalt go.
Ægiſthus. Haſt thou a fear I ſhould eſcape thy ſword?
Oreſtes. To make death bitter to thee, as thou wouldſt
Thou ſhalt not die: now to command is mine.
Thus by ſwift-ruſhing vengeance periſh all,
Who dare to violate the ſacred laws;
Leſs frequent then would impious deeds be ſeen.
Chorus. O race of Atreus, ſcarce haſt thou arrived
Through many ſufferings at thy ancient ſtate
Of liberty, by this bold deed atchieved!'

Mr. Potter is, as uſual, very ſparing of his notes; but a ſhort preface is annexed to each performance, containing ſome remarks on it, in general of the commendatory kind. On that entitled, 'Oedipus king of Thebes,' he obſerves, that 'the diſcovery that he himſelf is the perſon darkly hinted at by the oracle, the nice gradations by which this diſcovery is carried on, the alternate light and ſhade thrown over it from the ambiguous anſwers of Tyreſias to his clearer declarations, from the encouragement to the alarms which he receives from Jocaſta, from the momentary conviction of its impoſſibility, given him by the Corinthian to the full evidence of the fact, keep the mind in awful ſuſpence, till the diſtreſſing certainty breaks in upon it at once, and overwhelms it with terror and pity.' We concur with Mr. Potter's opinion as to the exquiſite conduct of this drama; the unities are moſt judiciouſly preſerved, and each circumſtance ariſes naturally from that which precedes it; but the illuſtrative ſimile which follows is far beyond our comprehenſion.

'This drama reſembles an eruption of mount Ætna; at firſt clouds of ſmoke darken the ſky; theſe are expelled by a dreadful exploſion of flames; then the threatening ſymptoms abate; thus ſmoke and flame and ſerenity ſucceed each other, till the mountain in an inſtant diſcharges its torrent fires, which ruſh down with reſiſtleſs fury, roll over palaces, temples, and cities, and carry with them deflagration, ruin, and horror.'

It is ſomewhat remarkable, that Mr. Potter ſhould make the Oedipus of Sophocles guilty of the ſame kind of anachroniſm. He thus addreſſes his daughters:

'To the bright circles of aſſembled dames
How will you go? Or how on feſtive days
To the *throng'd theatre*, returning home
More than each ſpectacle of tragic woe
Lamented there?'

The original paſſage is as follows, in which the reader will obſerve, that there is not the leaſt alluſion to 'circles of aſſembled dames, feſtive days, throng'd theatres, or ſpectacles of tragic woe.'

Ποιας γαρ, αγων ιξετ' εις ομιλιας;
Ποιας δ' εορτας, ενθεν α κεκλαυμεναι
Προς οικον ιξεσθ' αντι της θεωριας. Oedip. Tyr. l. 1502.

Some other exceptionable paſſages might have been ſelected in addition to thoſe we have already given; but merely to point out faults, in a performance of ſo much general merit, would be neither agreeable, nor conſiſtent with juſtice: though the author, by aſſerting its 'general correctneſs,' and profeſſing that it had been reviſed by a learned friend, remarkable for his taſte and judgment, appears to ſet at defiance the inveſtigation of criticiſm. He tells us, that the preſent performance is owing to 'the requeſt of a perſon of illuſtrious rank, and more illuſtrious for mental accompliſhments; that otherwiſe he ſhould have left Dr. Franklin in the *undiſturb'd poſſeſſion* of his well-acquired reputation.' Does Mr. Potter mean to infer, that it muſt be diminiſhed by the preſent undertaking? Surely the world is large enough for both tranſlators to enjoy their reſt ſpective proportions of fame, without detracting from each other's reputation.

The Fane of the Druids. A Poem. 4to. 2s. 6d. Murray.

THE ſubject of this poem is curious. The author has fixed his account of the Druidical eſtabliſhment in Britain at no decided æra, but ſuppoſes it was introduced, in ſome form or degree, by its firſt inhabitants. Many peculiarities, indeed, belonging to that ſyſtem may be traced up to the remoteſt ages. The doctrine of a metempſychoſis prevailed in India, Egypt, and the moſt celebrated nations of antiquity: in the earlieſt period of ſociety, in the times of the patriarchs, we may find inſtances in the † Old Teſtament of the oak's having been held in peculiar veneration. The author laments the little information we have received relative to the rites and ceremonies of the Druids, from their having left no written

† The author refers to the following paſſages as proofs of this opinion: ſome of them, however, carry but little conviction with them. 'Gen. xii. 6. xxi. 33. Joſh. xxiv. 26. 1 Kings xiv. 4. Judg. vi. 11.' See likewiſe Homer's Iliad, b. xvi. l. 234; and the *Trachiniæ* of Sophocles, l. 1180.

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records themſelves, and from the prejudices conceived againſt them by thoſe authors to whom we are indebted for whatever we know concerning them. 'Yet whoever,' ſays he, 'may have ſome curioſity to enquire into the manners and characters of his progenitors in the earlieſt ages of the world, will find as full an account of both in this little work, as could be collected from the few remains of antiquity that have reached the preſent times.' We cannot admit this aſſertion without ſome qualification. The author's materials were undoubtedly but ſcanty, yet ſeveral circumſtances relative to the Druids, and the manners of the times when they flouriſhed, are mentioned by Cæſar, Pliny, Strabo, and other writers of authority, of which no traces are here to be diſcovered; and ſome of which would have embelliſhed a poetical eſſay, profeſſedly written to exhibit a delineation of their manners. In a ſhort epiſode, in which the hero has unfortunately a Saxon (*Edgar*) and the heroine a Roman name (*Florella*) conferred on them, a battle is introduced. This would have afforded a fine opportunity of ſpecifying the different kinds of chariots, and mode of fighting uſed by the old Britons, and deſcribed by Cæſar: of theſe chariots, however, no mention is made. Their manner of painting themſelves, of which different accounts are given, their commerce, and peculiar dreſs of thoſe who * traded with the Phœnicians; the † Druidical form of excommunication, and ‡ oath adminiſtered by them; the § ceremonies they uſed in gathering ſavine, and an herb called ſamolus, or ſen-berry, of ſovereign virtue in curing diſeaſes among cattle, are totally unnoticed. Eſus, who is here introduced as the *ſovereign God*, was, we doubt not, worſhipped by the Britons as well as Gauls: but Taranis, we apprehend, was the Celtic Jupiter, and Eſus or Heſus their Mars.

—Horrenſque feris altaribus Heſus. Lucan.

Moſt of theſe circumſtances may be conſidered as trivial, and would ſcarcely have claimed our notice, had not the author profeſſed to have given 'as full an account of our forefathers' manners, as *could* be collected from ancient writers.' Yet, however we may be diſpoſed to controvert this declaration, we allow him the credit of having diſplayed a conſiderable degree of antiquarian knowlege in his notes, and exhibited many favourable ſpecimens of poetical talents in the performance itſelf. We cannot ſay the lines are uniformly good; but the following, which open the poem, and many others equally muſical might be ſelected, are extremely pleaſing. They are deſcriptive of a proſpect taken from a Druidical Fane, placed

* Strabo. † Cæſar. ‡ See Note on Maſon's Caractacus. § Pliny.

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on an eminence, and which ſuggeſted the firſt idea of this performance. The two laſt lines are faulty, as each of them contains a word of ſimilar ſound to thoſe which cloſe the preceding couplet: the image contained in them is otherwiſe very happily expreſſed.

'Sweet are the peaceful ſhades, to memory dear,
And ſweet the note that melts on fancy's ear;
Shades, from the Fane on yonder hill ſurvey'd,
And cheerful notes that echoed from the glade.
Seen from yon central ſtone, a varied ſcene
Of hill and dale, with waving woods between,
O'erſpread with flowers of many a beauteous dye,
Holds in delighted gaze the lingering eye.
Hence too, the lowing herd, the reaper's ſong,
The pipe, the mellow horn reſounding long;
The ploughman's whiſtle as he turns the ground,
And rural paſtime gladden all around.
'Time-hallow'd pile, by ſimple builders rear'd!
Myſterious round, through diſtant times rever'd!
Ordain'd with earth's revolving orb to laſt!
Thou bring'ſt to ſight the preſent and the paſt.
'Rapt with her theme, bold fancy wings her flight
To ſilent ages long involv'd in night;
Bids clouded forms ariſe to *ſight* diſplay'd,
And ſcatters *light* along th' oblivious ſhade.'

A New and Compendious Syſtem of Huſbandry. By George Winter. 8*vo.* 5*s. in Boards.* Newbery.

IT is an unpleaſing taſk to point out error; but there is a duty which we owe to ourſelves and the world, that prevents us from paſſing it by without notice. There is no great difficulty of conciliating an author's friendſhip, or of engaging his eſteem; but it is by methods which would ſometimes lead us to forfeit our own. We might give a general analyſis of the work before us, and by complimenting the beſt parts, and overlooking the others, thoſe who read our Journal only, and even the author, might be ſatisfied; yet the firſt perſon of judgment, who caſts his eye on the work itſelf, would give credit to the various tales of intereſted motives, and regret that an analyſis could not convey reprehenſion. In reality, with the various dangers impending, with the difficulties we foreſee, we muſt pronounce this work full of errors; as a whole, imperfect and incomplete.

Huſbandry has not yet attained a ſyſtematic form: its aſſiſting ſciences have not yet lighted their torches ſufficiently, to elucidate its obſcurity; they have not yet been applied to explore its recondite and unknown paths. The beſt chemiſts,

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the moſt experienced philoſophers, look on from a diſtance, or give a partial or an imperfect aid. Mr. Winter, with little philoſophy, and leſs chemiſtry, forms a ſyſtem in name; but in ſubſtance, an imperfect, an inorganic maſs. We allude particularly to the firſt part, for the ſecond conſiſts rather of miſcellaneous obſervations than of the ſubdiviſion of a ſyſtem.

The Introduction treats of the advantages of agriculture, of the pleaſure and health which it affords, with propriety. Mr. Winter reprehends the inattention of many farmers, particularly in their eſtimations of the value of their crop. He repeats the old Punic maxim, that a farmer ſhould be always maſter of his farm; and that the farm ſhould not be the farmer's maſter. But our commendations muſt, for a time, end when we finiſh the Introduction. The mechanics of agriculture is treated too conciſely to be erroneous; but even the ſhortneſs of the chemical part cannot guard from miſtake, the more reprehenſible as he had Home, Bergman, and Fordyce to lead him.

In a ſandy ſoil, clay or marle are recommended: he probably means clay, or the clayey marle. Sands too admit of no variety; yet clayey ſoils are ſaid to 'differ as materially as ſandy ſoils.'—Lime is adapted undoubtedly to clay, and therefore marle, *as ſuch*, is improper. On the ſubject of loamy ſoils, we are told, that the red ſoil is poiſonous, as it contains iron, or acids. Thoſe ſaid to be coloured by copper or lead, are ſpecies with which we are totally unacquainted: but we know many red ſoils are not poiſonous. Again, lime is directed to deſtroy theſe poiſonous particles, though it has no action but on acids, whoſe exiſtence is doubtful. With reſpect to boggy ſoils, we are told that the firſt ploughing ſhould not exceed the depth of four or five inches. The direction is proper; though not on account of the 'ſpecific gravity of lime, and other manures;' but in reality on account of the eaſy paſſage of water, through a ſoil of this kind, with the ſoluble parts of the manure united with it. Let us extract what our author ſays of lime, where there are nearly as many errors as words.

'*Quick* or *unſlaked* lime *contains no ſalts*; when ſlaked, attracts *oils*, acids, *and ſalts**, from the earth and atmoſphere. Clayey and other ſoils, when firſt broken up or plowed, contain various *mineral* and *poiſonous particles*, weeds, worms, grubs, and inſects; *all which lime diſſolves*. The oils and *ſalts* abſorbed from the earth and *atmoſphere*, then become ſo intimately united with the animal and vegetable ſubſtances, already diſ-

* Perhaps acids; but there is no evidence of unneutralized acid in ſoils, except perhaps in peat, and it is there only ſuſpected.

ſolved

ſolved by the lime, as to be converted into a ſoapy matter, by which they are rendered miſcible with water, and become the food of vegetables. Lime, by its *expanſive* force, opens, divides, and lightens a ſtiff ſoil, by which it is the eaſier pulverized; and gives a greater friability to ſtiff ſoils, than any other ſubſtance whatever. It is thus the roots of plants are permitted to extend themſelves.'

Again:

'The ſpecific gravity of lime is ſo great, as to be continually falling downwards; but by being thus mixed with the ſoil, (which I have before obſerved is lightened and divided by its expanſive force, and corrected by its cauſtic, abſorbent, and diſſolving powers) it then attracts oils and ſalts from the atmoſphere. A full *confirmation* of this aſſertion any perſon has in his power, by examining the nitrous particles on old walls; which particles are attracted ſolely by the lime.'

The ſpecific gravity and expanſive force we have already noticed. There is a defect, however, in the errata, though they are numerous: for 'confirmation' read confutation. If our author examines, we know that he will agree with us, for we have examined theſe efflorescences frequently.

We muſt paſs over a variety of exceptionable paſſages, to notice one error of ſome importance. 'Sea ſand is *not* a good manure for all ſoils, particularly ſands and light ſandy lands.' Of itſelf it is often injurious, and ſeldom eminently uſeful, except in ſtiff clayey ſoils. Our author is led into an error by confounding ſands with minute ſhells. If he examined thoſe ſands which are found to be uſeful, for every farmer on the ſea-coaſt will tell him that all ſand is not ſo, he will find it almoſt wholly compoſed of the fragments of ſhells. Again, ſhells contain no ſalts, except any be found in the animal gluten. We ſhall extract our author's deſcription of his new manure, becauſe it may be uſeful, for it is not new to many farmers.

'The alkaline and new manure, which I have experienced to be inferior to none, I make as often as I can procure materials, in the following manner, viz. Having collected from the ſides of ditches and from commons, a quantity of rubbiſh wood, briers, &c. ſtems and roots of weeds, ſtalks of beans, and garden offals, which are burnt and the aſhes ſifted; ſuch cinders as are not thoroughly conſumed, undergo the ſecond operation of the fire, are again ſifted, and immediately carried into a houſe to prevent the bad effects of rain; and to every four buſhels of the aſhes, or in proportion, I add one buſhel of quick lime, on which is thrown as much ſtale urine or barton draining, as will thoroughly ſlake it, when the whole is turned and mixed as often as is neceſſary, ſo that the lime and aſhes may be completely incorporated.'

From our author's natural philoſophy we ſhall extract three paragraphs, without a word of comment.

'Snow

'Snow is a meteor engendered in the air by moiſture and cold; contains no nitre nor any other ſalts, leaves nothing that chryſtalizes after diſſolution; but *contains inflammable matter, and makes the common air more noxious and unwholeſome than before.*'

'Lightning is generally ſuppoſed to be a mixture of *ſulphureous and nitrous effluvia, which ferment, kindle, and occaſion thoſe exploſions and vivid* flames of fire, which we call thunder and lightning; and is in the hand of providence, *in ſome reſpect, ſimilar* to what electricity is in ours.'

'A moiſt atmoſphere is heavier than a dry and clear atmoſphere, in proportion to the quantity of ſuſpended watry particles; and according to its component parts its weight varies, which barometers diſcover.'

When our author leaves his ſyſtem, or does not mix it with his agricultural obſervations, he is more correct, and his work, of courſe, more uſeful. The methods of draining, of clearing land from trees, the advantages of ploughing, of fallow crops, contain ſome valuable facts, and ſome accurate eſtimations. The drill huſbandry, and our author's patent machine, are the great objects of this volume. He enforces its utility, by many arguments and many facts. But on this ſubject, the moſt experienced agriculturiſts are not yet agreed: we own that, on the beſt information which we can procure, the balance leans on the ſide of the drill, and we expect that its utility will be, at ſome future period, ſtill more apparent. Various authorities in ſupport of it are ſubjoined, and, indeed, extend to a greater length than could be allowed in an accurately conſtructed ſyſtem. Hoeing is a neceſſary appendage to the drill, and its uſe is well eſtabliſhed.

The experiments on feeding ſwine with potatoes, are very uſeful. Our author thinks that the ſagacity of ſwine is equal to that of any other domeſtic animal, and we could confirm his opinion by many facts.

'From experience, I have found that ſwine prefer lucerne to clover. Laſt year I had a ſmall ſpot of lucerne adjoining to a field of clover, to both which they had free acceſs. When drove into the clover, they would immediately return to the lucerne, which manifeſtly proves it to be a ſweeter feed for ſwine. The ſuperior advantages of lucerne to clover, are great and many. Lucerne is not only earlier, and much more luxuriant in its growth, but will bear cutting four times in a ſeaſon, and likewiſe flouriſh from fourteen to ſixteen years longer than clover. The manure dropt by the pigs, tends greatly to enrich the land it grows on: hence I am fully convinced of its ſuperior advantages to every other culture.

'I have experienced, that neither lucerne nor clover are of themſelves a ſufficient ſupport for the large Shropſhire breed of ſwine. A ſmall quantity of corn, peaſe, or beans, (particularly in cold mornings)

mornings) is eſſentially neceſſary to be given them before they are turned out.'

We ſuſpect that the lucerne is too windy alone, for Mr. Winter found the diſeaſe called 'the blood,' to ariſe from the diſtention of the ſtomach and inteſtines with wind. Our author's mode of employing the potatoes, muſt be learned in his own work. He mixes, however, too much of his ſyſtem in the explication. In the experiment on turnips, ſteeping in train oil and linſeed oil for ſix hours, while the young plants are ſurrounded by ſoot, proved the beſt defence from the fly. Whence is the turpentine? (p. 246. line laſt).

The experiments on the increaſe of grain are curious and uſeful. Our author prefers full ſeeds drilled at ſix inches; but the quantity of grain muſt depend on the richneſs of the ground. The alkaline ley may be uſeful, though the experiment with the common red worms is not concluſive, or indeed applicable. Mr. Winter next deſcribes ſome imperfections of the old mode of huſbandry, and details at length the advantages of the new. An account of his patent drill machine, with plates, is annexed. The volume concludes with experiments and an analyſis of ſoils and manures, in which we find nothing particularly uſeful. On the whole, this work, as containing ſome detached facts, may be of ſervice; but as a ſyſtem, we cannot commend it, or indeed mention it without reprehenſion. If Mr. Winter will confine himſelf to obſervations, he may afford uſeful aſſiſtance; but, with his preſent opinions, he will puzzle the chemiſt and confound the philoſopher.

The Huſbandry of the Ancients. In two Volumes. By Adam Dickſon, A. M. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Robinſons.

WHILE huſbandry, on the juſteſt and moſt ſcientific principles, is cultivated in many parts of Scotland, and particularly in Eaſt Lothian; while the languages are cultivated with equal zeal on the north of the Tweed, a work which unites the practice of the ancients with the moſt ſucceſsful efforts of the moderns, muſt be particularly valuable. Mr. Dickſon poſſeſſed conſiderable knowlege of both ſubjects, and, with the ſimplicity and modeſty of real genius, he gives an abſtract of the ſyſtem of the Romans, and ſhortly compares it with the experience of modern farmers. It has been the work of many years, and he requeſts that it may not be decided on in as many minutes: we have complied with his requeſt, for it has been for ſome time before us; and from this delay we have been taught to value the whole, as a very careful and correct account; and have learned alſo, that the author has been in ſome circumſtances miſtaken. The errors are not, however,

numerous. As we muſt give but a general outline of what is correctly and judiciouſly detailed, we ſhall only ſelect a few of thoſe circumſtances in which we imagine that Mr. Dickſon is miſtaken.

Of the various writers on huſbandry, the greateſt number have been loſt. The works of Cato, Varro, Virgil, Columella, Pliny, and Palladius are only extant. Celſus might have ſhown the elegance of the Latin language when applied to huſbandry, as he has done in its application to medicine, and been the chief inſtructor in proſe, as Virgil is in heroics. Scroſa Tremellius might have diſplayed his 'eloquence' * on the ſame ſubject. But to regret their loſs is uſeleſs,—let us rather enquire into what we poſſeſs.

The Introduction to theſe volumes contains ſome account of the limitation of property, by the different agrarian laws. Our author at the ſame time attempts to ſhow, in a note, that the Roman agriculture was brought to the greateſt degree of perfection which it would admit of; indeed to the requiſite perfection, ſince the price of corn, from a period preceding the birth of Cato to 150 years after him, bore a very inconſiderable proportion to the price of labour. Was the proportion between theſe, in Britain at preſent, the ſame, adds Mr. Dickſon, 'there would be no encouragement for expenſive improvements, and very little for the culture of corn.' It is ſurpriſing that this proportion did not ſuggeſt to our author its true cauſe, viz. the vaſt importation of corn from Sicily and Africa. Whatever may be allowed to the excellency of the Roman management, though many lakes and marſhes may have been formerly cultivated, it is well known, that the quantity of corn which grew in Italy was very unequal to the conſumption of its inhabitants. The greateſt commotions have ariſen in Rome, when from the pirates, or other cauſes, the regular importation has been prevented.

The firſt chapter relates to the villæ of the Romans; thoſe edifices where relaxation and luxury were combined with huſbandry and the conduct of rural affairs.—The ſize of the villa and its ſituation are objects of the greateſt importance. Mr. Caſtell ſuppoſes that Columella's directions for the ſituation, in the 5th chapter of the ſecond book, do not recommend the vicinity of the ſea. Mr. Dickſon tranſlates the paſſage differently. It (the villa) is always properly placed upon the ſea, when ſo near as to be beat and daſhed by the waves. It ſhould never be removed from the bank to a little diſtance from the ſhore; for it is better to retire to a conſiderable diſtance than only a ſhort

* Columella, lib. i. cap. 1.

way,

way, becauſe the air is groſſer at a little diſtance than at a greater, or immediately on the ſhore. We own that we are not ſatisfied with this interpretation. It is neither conſiſtent with the ancient philoſophy, nor with common ſenſe. We ſhall therefore ſubjoin the original; 'Eademque ſemper mare recte conſpicit, cum pulſatur, ac fluctu reſpergitur; nunquam ex ripa, ſed paullum ſubmota a littore; nam præſtat a mari longo potius intervallo, quam brevi refugiſſe, quia media ſunt ſpatia gravioris halitus.' Mr. Dickſon has the ſupport of the beſt commentators, in ſuppoſing *ripa* and *littus* ſynonymous; but his tranſlation is not warranted by the original, when he ſays, it ſhould never be removed from the bank to the ſhore. In reality it is more probable, that *ripa* means the edge of the ſhore, and *littus* the whole ſhore, and that the paſſage ſhould be tranſlated in the following manner: 'And its ſituation is properly towards the ſea; when it is beat and ſprinkled by the ſpray, it is not proper that it ſhould riſe from the immediate brink, but be removed to ſome diſtance from the ſhore, becauſe the intermediate ſpace is full of groſs vapour.' If *fluctus* cannot be ſuppoſed to mean the ſpray, but really the waves, we ſhall find no ſupport in the practice of the ancients for this direction. The different force of the prepoſitions *ex* and *a* are not properly attended to, in Mr. Dickſon's tranſlation, and the concluding words have nothing correſpondent in the original. The projections of the villa were not, our author thinks, perpendicular to the ſide, but that they ſtretched out from the corner like a baſtion; becauſe Palladius ſpeaks of their receiving the ſun at the firſt angle. But it appears probable, that even a projection perpendicular to the ſide would receive the ſun at the firſt angle, that is, the eaſtern angle, if the building, as is ſaid, faces the ſouth-eaſt.

The ſecond chapter relates to the perſons employed in agriculture. The deſcriptions of the different duties afford nothing very remarkable. The politor or the polintor did not exactly anſwer to the modern tenant; ſince, from the ſmall proportion of the profits which he received, he ſeems to have been at no expence in the cultivation. He was rather the hind, who was paid a kind of per centage on the profits, and was under the direction of the landlord. The coloni came nearer to the modern tenants, and are ſtyled in ſome places by Columella, liberi. In this chapter there is, however, much curious diſcuſſion, and many real elucidations of the ancient practice. When Mr. Dickſon comes to compare the practice of the Roman agriculturiſts with our own, he points out the inconveniencies which ariſe from gentlemen's farming to any great extent, though he thinks they ſhould poſſeſs farms for new experiments,

and to examine the expediency of new practices. From this chapter we ſhall ſelect a little ſpecimen of Mr. Dickſon's language and reaſoning.

'It appears, both from Cato and Columella, that the Roman farmers, in their leaſes, were reſtricted to a particular kind of culture: this ſuggeſts another important enquiry, whether it is for the advantage of agriculture, that farmers ſhould be confined in their operations, and, if ſo, of what nature the reſtrictions ought to be. The Roman farmers ſeem to have been reſtricted in a very particular manner; they were obliged not only to a fixed plan in their manner of croping, but alſo to give a certain culture to particular crops. The propriety of theſe depends upon circumſtances, the ſtate of agriculture, the ſituation of the proprietors of the land, and the condition of the farmers; all of which are very different at preſent in Britain, from what they were in Italy, even after the time of Cato. In Italy, at that time, agriculture was brought to a high degree of perfection, its operations were well underſtood, the culture which the different ſoils required, according to the crops intended, was well known, and the particular times of applying this culture, from the regularity of the ſeaſons, could be eaſily aſcertained. But, in Britain, agriculture is as yet capable of great improvement, its operations may be performed with greater exactneſs, the beſt kind of culture to the different ſoils is not yet known, and the times of giving this culture, depending upon ſeaſons irregular and inconſtant, cannot be determined.'

In the early ages of Rome, its citizens were farmers: in the early ages of Britain, its ſons deſpiſed agriculture. In the civilized ages, the firſt were ſtill the chief directors of the tenants: the ſecond, though they begin to ſtudy, are often unacquainted with practice.

'In caſes, therefore, ſo very different, particular reſtrictions in leaſes may be very proper for the advantage of agriculture in the one, while they may be very improper in the other. That the particular culture, to which the Roman farmer was reſtricted, was conſidered as beneficial to agriculture in general, and to the farmer himſelf in particular, is evident from the manner in which Columella expreſſes himſelf on the ſubject: "the landlord (ſays he) ought to be more rigorous in demanding culture than payment, in conſequence of which, the farmer having a good crop, will not have the aſſurance to demand an eaſe of his rent." But whether the many particular clauſes relating to the method of culture, found in ſome of our modern leaſes, are of this kind, is not ſo evident. It may not be improper to obſerve in general, that it is impoſſible to deviſe a particular ſcheme of management, which, in the execution, does not become very hurtful in ſome ſeaſons and ſituations; and therefore, that to confine the farmer even to the beſt is a real diſadvantage.'

In another view, to prevent the tenant from injuring the eſtate, our author allows that there may be reſtrictions; but thinks that they ſhould not be very numerous. From a very careful and exact enquiry, Mr. Dickſon concludes, that the expence of labour among the Romans was as great, if not greater, than in Britain at this day.

The third chapter is on ſoil in general, and the qualities of good ſoil. The black ſoil is beſt; but Columella reprehends Celſus for conſidering the blackneſs of ſoil a criterion of its excellency. Mr. Dickſon ſeems anxious to defend Virgil from the ſame imputation. In reality all the qualities mentioned ſhould be taken together: as we have not the work of Celſus, we ſhall refer to Pliny, Virgil, and Palladius. They do not ſay black; but a ſoil almoſt black, or of an aſh colour. The two laſt alſo mention its ſlimineſs, and ſticking to the fingers like pitch. The black mooriſh ſoils, and the black ſoils which contain ſalts, often alum, are very *black*, *ſoft*, and *crumbly*. The ancients were particularly attentive to this ſubject, and their opinions are judiciouſly abridged. We are ſorry that our limits prevent us from adding the different remarks which this abridgment has ſuggeſted. The author muſt give his own abſtract of it.

'The beſt ſoil, they ſay, is of a blackiſh colour, has an agreeable ſmell, is of a glutinous nature when wet, and eaſily crumbles when dry, imbibes water, retains a proper quantity, and eaſily parts with the ſuperfluity. When ploughed, ſends forth miſts; and, in the time of this operation, the ploughman is followed by rooks, crows, &c. and, when at reſt, carries a thick graſſy turf. Now, although there are many good ſoils that have very different appearances, and ſome bad ones that have ſome of the marks here mentioned in a higher degree than the good ſoils; yet it may be aſſerted, that there is no land good for corn but has ſeveral of theſe marks, and that the beſt land in the kingdom has all of them. The beſt kind or ſoil is of a blackiſh colour, but not ſo black as moſs; is glutinous, but not ſo glutinous as clay; it admits water, but not ſo eaſily as ſand or moſs; and it retains water, but not ſo ſtrongly as moſs or clay; and it parts with water, but not ſo eaſily as ſand. It may be farther aſſerted, not only that land which has theſe qualities is the beſt, but alſo, that the nearer the qualities of any ſoil approach to the qualities mentioned, it is the better.'

To judge of ſoils, he adviſes inſpecting them when pretty dry and when partly ploughed.

But our limits remind us that we muſt be more brief; we ſhall, therefore, add only the titles of the ſubſequent chapters, and a few remarks on the moſt intereſting ſubjects. The fourth chapter is on the different kinds of crops, and the attention of

the

the Romans in adapting them to different ſoils. The fifth contains the maxims of the ancients, and general directions to the farmer. From this chapter let us ſelect an ancient Carthaginian maxim of great importance: Imbecilliorem agrum quam Agricolam eſſe debere. It will admit of an Engliſh tranſlation which will preclude the neceſſity of an explanation. The field muſt not be too much for the farmer. The ſpirit of this maxim is ſtrongly recommended by the Roman farmers: it is expanded in various forms, and illuſtrated by numerous arguments and examples; yet too much labour ſhould not be beſtowed. Culture, ſaid the oracle, ſhould be carried on 'malis bonis,' by the cheapeſt method, if good (Plin. Nat. Hiſt. xviii. 6.) for this was the old meaning of *malum*. When Mr. Dickſon comes to his comparative view, which he takes only of one of the ancient maxims, that of making experiments, he concludes that it is more diſadvantageous than uſeful in Britain, from the numerous experiments that are fallacious. The earlier Roman experiments, from the conſtant attention neceſſary to be employed, and the compaſs being greatly limited, are very good.

The ſixth chapter is on the ſchemes of management, and the ſucceſſion of crops, which forms a valuable part of the modern improvements: the general Roman practice was alternately cropping and fallowing. In his remarks on the modern ſyſtem, Mr. Dickſon's good ſenſe and judgment are particularly conſpicuous, and we would ſtrenuouſly recommend his remarks to every eager, raſh, innovating farmer. The ſeventh chapter is on the care of the Romans in manuring, and the particular kinds of manure which they employed. This ſubject is purſued in many different chapters, where the author treats of dung, properly ſo called; of its preparation; the times and manner of laying it on; of other manures, as vegetables ſown for this purpoſe; of burning trees, twigs, and ſtubble; of lime, and of marles. The abridgment of the ſyſtem of the Romans, in theſe reſpects, is accurate, and the obſervations often uſeful; but we cannot join with our author in his ſuſpicions, that the decreaſe of the moon is favourable to manuring, becauſe it may tend to deſtroy the weeds, or be favourable to thoſe animals who feed on their ſeeds. The vegetables ſown for manure, were, among the Greeks, beans, and among the Romans, lupines; theſe were often ploughed in while in bloſſom.

'We ſee that the Romans were very attentive to this operation, the ploughing in vegetables ſown for manure: and, perhaps, it is from the want of this attention in us, that this practice has ſucceeded very well with ſome perſons, and in ſome places, while

with other perſons, and in other places, it has ſucceeded very ill. The light ſoils in Italy are hurt by being too much expoſed to the ſun in the hot ſeaſon; when lupines, therefore, were ſown for manuring ſuch ſoils, they were ploughed in while tender, that ſo they might ſoon mix with the ſoil, and prevent the ſun from exhaling the juices. The ſtiff ſoils are in a different ſituation; they need to be pulveriſed, and this operation is difficult; when lupines, therefore, were ſown for manuring them, they were not ploughed in, till they had acquired a degree of firmneſs, ſo as to ſuſpend the clods raiſed in ploughing, and keep the ſoil open. Hence the rays of the ſun were the more eaſily admitted, to raiſe a ſteam from the putrifying plants to moiſten and diſſolve the clods. Would we give the ſame attention to circumſtances, to the nature and qualities of the ſoils upon which vegetables are ſown for manure, to the ſeaſons of ſowing them, the ſeaſons of ploughing them in, their ſituation when this operation is performed, the time when the ſeed is to be ſown for the crop following, the ſituation of the land when it receives this ſeed furrow, and the kind of weather naturally to be expected from the ſeaſon that follows, I am perſuaded, that this method of manuring our lands would become much more common, and a much greater improvement than it is at preſent.'

Some other conſiderations ſeem, however, to be requiſite: we ſhould prefer the vegetables whoſe roots ramify conſiderably, for ſtiff land; and if we employ this mode of manuring in a light ſoil, we ſhould chuſe different ones. Our turnips, which, though not ploughed in, are of great ſervice, owe ſome of their advantages to their roots, but more to the ſheep that are fed on them. It was the ancient practice to draw their ſheep to thoſe lands which they intended to ſow. The modern Italians retain the practice of ſowing vegetables for manure, but differ in many reſpects from their anceſtors in the management. The crops of lupines were ſometimes paſtured in the leaf, and they are then directed to be immediately ploughed. On the ſubject of liming, our author ſeems to have had much to learn from his ſouthern neighbours. Of the marles which the Romans found in Gaul, our author gives a very judicious deſcription, chiefly from Pliny, with the method which the Romans employed in uſing them. The ſubject of drains and draining are explained with great care and judgment: our author thinks that on draining, we have made no improvements; and that, in attention to this ſubject, we ſeldom equal the Roman agriculturiſts.

The next object of our author is the various inſtruments uſed in agriculture: they are very numerous, but the particular forms and uſes are not diſtinctly known. The different parts of the aratrum (the plough), have been pretty accurately deſcribed in the ancient authors, whom Mr. Dickſon has

has abridged in his 18th chapter; yet, on the whole, it is not eaſy to aſcertain its particular conſtruction. Our author, from his acquaintance with huſbandry, has done more than his predeceſſors; but many circumſtances are yet doubtful. It is impoſſible, from the extent of this diſcuſſion, to give the ſlighteſt abridgment of Mr. Dickſon's opinion, or of his interpretation of various paſſages, in which he differs from preceding authors. The irpex and the crates were kinds of harrows, though the former had more power than our harrows, and was deſigned to draw out roots from the earth. The raſtrum was our common rake; and the ſarculum was like the rake, though conſtructed in ſuch a manner as occaſionally to be employed as a hand-hoe. The bidens was an inſtrument with two teeth, uſed not like a ſpade, but like a hoe, in opening hard ſtony ground, with a mall on the back, to break the clods. The ligo and pala were ſpades of a very ſimilar kind, probably ſhaped like a turf ſpade. The ſecuris was an axe; but the ſecuris of a pruning knife was in the form of a half moon. The dolabra was an adz, and often joined to the ſecuris. The marra was a ſcraping inſtrument.

The twenty-firſt chapter is of ploughing in general; and while our author is examining the various objects requiſite to the ſucceſs of this operation, he engages in explaining what Cato means by 'carious land.' From Columella, he ſuppoſes it to be land wetted only on the ſurface, and to be no peculiar ſoil, but ground in a particular ſtate. The Roman farmer ſeldom ploughed in ridges, except when he ploughed in ſeed, or previous to ſowing. It was among them the mark of a well ploughed field, that it could not be ſeen where the plough had gone. The depth to which they uſually ploughed, was at leaſt ſix inches, and we ſuſpect more commonly nine. Mr. Dickſon does not decide on this point. A defect in plowing, common to ancient and modern times, is noticed, and the means of obviating it pointed out; we mean the not ploughing to an equal depth, ſo that if the looſened earth was removed, the field would appear ribbed, or in ridges.

The two next chapters are on fallowing, and the method of managing the fallow. Mr. Dickſon recommends to modern farmers a little more attention to fallowing; but in the ſucceſſion of crops now ſown, it is certainly neceſſary only on occaſions. The Romans derived many advantages from frequent ploughings; but they ploughed their light ſoils only once, and then it was in the autumn, for which they have been ſeverely cenſured by Mr. Tull: they are defended by our author, on account of the injuries which might have ariſen from the ſevere heats of Italy. Much uſeful matter occurs on the

ſeaſons for ploughing, and the number of times it was practiſed on a fallow.

The laſt chapter in this volume is on ſowing, and the method of covering the ſeed. It was ſowed by hand, and covered by rakes, or with the plough. The inſtrument for this purpoſe, differed greatly from a common plough. There was undoubtedly ſome regularity in the ridges, becauſe they admitted of hoeing. Mr. Dickſon compares the Roman method of ſowing with the drill huſbandry, and thinks the improvement not ſo great as is commonly imagined, though it has undoubtedly many advantages over the old practice. From an experiment of M. de Chateauvieux, it ſeems to be advantageous to ſow corn as thick as is conſiſtent with its receiving ſun and air, as the ſtalks ſeem to ſupport and ſtrengthen each other.—We ſhall reſume the other volume of this work in another Number.

The Hiſtory of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. By Edward Gibbon, Eſq. Volumes IV. V. and VI. (Continued from our laſt, p. 44.)

THE death of Juſtinian was neither marked with civil conteſt or domeſtic cruelty. The friends of Juſtin hurried him to the imperial throne, and ſupported, by the moſt deciſive and vigorous efforts, their own nomination. Yet Juſtin had no claims but what were common to ſeven ſons or grandſons of the brother and ſiſter of Juſtinian, and did not poſſeſs that ſtrength of judgment, or energy of mind, requiſite for the emperor of the world. His firſt ſteps were, however, directed by juſtice, and his firſt language was ſpirited and intimidating. But his reign was marked by the loſs and deſolation of his diſtant territories, by the deſtruction of that mutual confidence, which would have cemented the happineſs of his ſubjects at home, and by the confuſion which ariſes when juſtice, diſarmed of her ſcales and ſword, is ſet up to ſale. He perceived his weakneſs; and, at the inſtigation of the empreſs, who was induced perhaps by the perſonal qualifications of the captain of his guard, and the hopes of ſtill ſharing imperial honours, after the death of Juſtin, he reſigned the ſceptre to Tiberius. If his choice did not diſplay his judgment, it was at leaſt a mark of the good fortune of the empire, for Tiberius was wiſe, ſpirited, and temperate. He revered the hand from which he had received the crown, and the gratitude of his ſucceſſor, in this almoſt ſolitary inſtance of abdicated royalty, was bounded only by the life of Juſtin, who died four years after he had voluntarily ſunk into obſcurity.

Tiberius reigned four years longer, and, by an adminiſtration equally juſt and beneficent, ſecured the happineſs of his

ſubjects

ſubjects at home, while, from the weakneſs of the eaſtern empire, he could only aſſiſt the diſtant provinces with his counſels and occaſional donations. His ſpirit and activity ſoon checked the only rebellion, which the widow of Juſtin had excited, in revenge for the ſlight ſhe had ſuſtained on the emperor's ſharing his throne with Anaſtatia, his lawful, though clandeſtine wife; and his generals, for even a ſoldier, at that time, could not command the forces of the empire, were ſucceſsful in Perſia. He reſigned the ſceptre at his death to the perſon whom he thought moſt worthy of it; and Maurice did not diſgrace his choice. The new emperor purſued the ſyſtem of Tiberius, though the people changed affability for reſervedneſs; and, in their leſs popular monarch, thought that they diſcerned, occaſionally, the cruelty of a little mind, and the avarice of a contracted one.

During the reign of theſe ſucceſſors of Juſtinian, the provinces of the empire ſuffered conſiderably. The Avars, intimidated by Juſtin, who ſaw in his new allies the conquered remains of a ſuperior nation, fell back on the few inhabitants of the Sarmatian deſert, and might have been deſtroyed, in an obſcure and predatory war, if not joined with the king of the Lombards, whoſe diſappointed love and eager vengeance they aſſiſted in the war with the Gepidæ. The lands of the conquered nations ſatisfied the avarice and ambition of theſe fugitives, the victims of the Turks; and their new empire, which compriſed Walachia, Moldavia, Tranſilvania, and Hungary beyond the Danube, continued unmoleſted, we can hardly ſay it greatly flouriſhed, for 230 years.

The ſpirit of Alboin, the youthful conqueror of the Gepidæ, was not gratified with revenge alone. He looked forward to a kingdom, which ſhould be equal to his ambition. The Lombards, as confederates of the empire, were well acquainted with Italy; they wiſhed to viſit it as warriors, and to rule over it as conquerors. Narſes, inſulted by the wife of Juſtin, lent, for a time, an unwilling aid; and the little that extreme old age, infirmities, and diſaffection could perform, was ſoon completely terminated by his death, The new exarch, ſhut up in Ravenna, had little ability, and leſs inclination, to oppoſe the ſpirited Lombards. They ſucceeded in their attempts, and eſtabliſhed their monarchy at Pavia. They left Longinus in poſſeſſion of a rich, but limited territory, the future principality of the Popes, which they afterwards claimed on the exarchs having united the civil and eccleſiaſtical dignities, while the conquerors occupied thoſe tracts which have been ſince the ſcenes of ſo many wars, of the oppreſſions of feodal chiefs, and the diſtractions of contending parties. Venice

alone, ſubject to neither kingdom, roſe from the ocean, an empire which neither party wiſhed to gain: it roſe unmoleſted, and afterwards baffled every attempt, when it was conſidered as an object worthy of contention. The ſubſequent hiſtory of the Lombards is ſhort. The ſpirited conqueror was murdered by the contrivances of his wife, daughter of the king of the Gepidæ; his ſucceſſor was alſo murdered; and we muſt, for the preſent, leave the throne poſſeſſed by the contending powers of ariſtocratic regents, during the minority of Antharis. Theſe long-bearded Scythians laid, however, the foundation of good government in Italy, by wiſe laws; and this uncouth ſavage race learned, without a tutor, the leſſons of moderation and juſt policy. Europe, ariſing from the barbarity of the middle ages, was greatly indebted to the Lombards for law, for civil policy, and for the principles of commerce. England alſo owes much to their ſucceſſors, whoſe name is preſerved in that of one of the moſt commercial ſtreets of its metropolis.

In the diſtreſſes of Rome we muſt not forget Gregory, juſtly named the Great, who joined an artful policy to affected humility, an enterpriſing ſpirit to the moſt ſubmiſſive retirement, and a great ſtrength of mind to an abject ſuperſtition.

'In his rival, the patriarch of Conſtantinople, he condemned the anti-chriſtian title of univerſal biſhop, which the ſucceſſor of St. Peter was too haughty to concede, and too feeble to aſſume; and the eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction of Gregory was confined to the triple character of biſhop of Rome, primate of Italy, and apoſtle of the Weſt. He frequently aſcended the pulpit, and kindled, by his rude though pathetic eloquence, the congenial paſſions of his audience: the language of the Jewiſh prophets was interpreted and applied, and the minds of a people, depreſſed by their preſent calamities, were directed to the hopes and fears of the inviſible world. His precepts and example defined the model of the Roman liturgy; the diſtribution of the pariſhes, the calendar of feſtivals, the order of proceſſions, the ſervice of the prieſts and deacons, the variety and change of ſacerdotal garments. Till the laſt days of his life, he officiated in the canon of the maſs, which continued above three hours; the Gregorian chant has preſerved the vocal and inſtrumental muſic of the theatre, and the rough voices of the Barbarians attempted to imitate the melody of the Roman ſchool. Experience had ſhewn him the efficacy of theſe ſolemn and pompous rites, to ſoothe the diſtreſs, to confirm the faith, to mitigate the fierceneſs, and to diſpel the dark enthuſiaſm of the vulgar, and he readily forgave their tendency to promote the reign of prieſthood and ſuperſtition. The biſhops of Italy and the adjacent iſlands acknowledged the Roman pontiff as their ſpecial metropolitan. Even the exiſtence, the union, or the tranſlation of epiſcopal ſeats, was decided by his abſolute diſcre-

diſcretion: and his ſucceſsful inroads into the provinces of Greece, of Spain, and of Gaul, might countenance the more lofty pretenſions of ſucceeding popes. He interpoſed to prevent the abuſes of popular elections; his jealous care maintained the purity of faith and diſcipline, and the apoſtolic ſhepherd aſſiduouſly watched over the faith and diſcipline of the ſubordinate paſtors. Under his reign, the Arians of Italy and Spain were reconciled to the Catholic church, and the conqueſt of Britain reflects leſs glory on the name of Cæſar than of that of Gregory the Firſt. Inſtead of ſix legions, forty monks were embarked for that diſtant iſland, and the pontiff lamented the auſtere duties which forbade him to partake the perils of their ſpiritual warfare. In leſs than two years he could announce to the archbiſhop of Alexandria, that they had baptiſed the king of Kent, with ten thouſand of his Anglo-Saxons, and that the Roman miſſionaries, like thoſe of the primitive church, were armed only with ſpiritual and ſupernatural powers. The credulity or the prudence of Gregory was always diſpoſed to confirm the truths of religion by the evidence of ghoſts, miracles, and reſurrections, and poſterity has paid to his memory the ſame tribute, which he freely granted to the virtue of his own or the preceding generation. The celeſtial honours have been liberally beſtowed by the authority of the popes; but Gregory is the laſt of their own order whom they have preſumed to inſcribe in the calendar of ſaints.'

Yet we ought to add that, according to the ſpirit of his religion, he was the miniſter of peace, not the herald of war. He was pious, humane, and charitable. Though little acquainted with the elegancies of the Roman tongue, and deſpiſing profane literature, he reformed the eccleſiaſtical chant, and introduced the more perfect harmony of the fifteen chords of the ancient muſic. He watched diligently over the church, and did not loſe ſight of the character of a prieſt, in the civil deſpotiſm of a temporal potentate.

In this period, the latter end of the ſixth century, the Roman arms proſpered in the Eaſt. The revolutions of the Perſian empire are not very important; and we may overlook the vices of Hormouz, the diſaffection and conqueſts of Baram, the death of the tyrant, and the flight, or the reſtoration of Choſroes II. to remark, that the arms of Tiberius and Maurice were ſucceſsful, when they interfered in the affairs of Perſia; and that the Roman empire obtained a long and laſting peace, during the reigns of Choſroes and Maurice. The more advantageous conſequences of this peace were, extending the empire to the banks of the Araxes, and the ſhores of the Caſpian.

On the other ſide, the Roman proſpects were not equally flattering. The expedition of the Lombards had left the Roman

man empire expoſed to the inroads of the Avars, and the ambition of their Chagan, while the weakneſs of the empire, the wars in Perſia, the timid, probably the avaricious, diſpoſition of Maurice, induced him to bear the inſolence of the king of Avars, and endeavour to mitigate that capricious reſentment by ſubmiſſion and coſtly bribes, which he could not puniſh with his arms. Theſe temporary expedients could not have a permanent effect, with a chief who deſpiſed oaths, promiſes, and treaties. The Chagan marched, at laſt, towards Conſtantinople, and Maurice met him in the field, with the veterans who had returned victorious from the Perſian war. Timid from age, weak from infirmities, and ſuperſtitious from ignorance, he could not bear the fatigues of a campaign: he reſigned the command to Commentiolus, who diſgraced his charge; and to Priſcus, who, for a time, reſtored the ſullied honour of the Romans. But the childiſh levity, and the groſs cowardice of Commentiolus, the neglect, and perhaps the avarice of the emperor, who would not ranſom 12000 priſoners in the hands of the Chagan, but doomed them to a certain and cruel death; his incautious conduct reſpecting the blue and green factions; and above all, his ſuſpected hereſy, haſtened his downfal. Phocas, a centurion of the army, was raiſed to the purple in his ſtead; and the unfortunate emperor, after twenty years reign, found, as uſual, a grave at the foot of his throne, embittered by the moſt ſavage cruelty. The uſurper haſtened his own ruin by his enormities, and, after two years, Heraclius the ſon of the exarch of Africa, dethroned and deſtroyed him.

The firſt years of Heraclius were ſunk in a gloomy deſpondency. Choſroes roſe in arms to revenge, on the uſurper Phocas, the murther of Maurice; and he continued to oppreſs the empire, when the cauſe of the war was no more. Preſſed on all ſides by the Avars and the Perſians, the emperor of the Eaſt was no longer ſafe at Conſtantinople. His earneſt entreaties and his bribes were equally inſulted, and every year was diſtinguiſhed by accumulated diſtreſſes, the conqueſt of his provinces, and the maſſacre of his ſubjects. Syria, Paleſtine, Ægypt, and Aſia Minor, ſucceſſively yielded to the arms of Choſroes; while Greece, Italy, Africa, with a few maritime cities of the coaſt of Aſia, only remained to give a feeble luſtre to the ſeat of the Roman empire. After fruitleſs negotiations with an inſolent and faithleſs foe, Heraclius roſe the hero. The emperor appeared again at the head of the army of the empire, raiſed by the money which he borrowed of the church; and, in a few years, regained from Choſroes all that had been taken, entered his dominions in triumph, purſued him to his

moſt

moſt important faſtneſſes, nor left him, till an indignant nation had dethroned the deſtructive tyrant; deſtructive even in his death, for the Perſian empire, after a few ſhort, bloody, and conteſted reigns, was conquered by the Arabian caliphs. Even at the moment of his victories, his ambition, and luxuries, he was accoſted by the new prophet, and commanded to become a Mahometan: at the moment of Heraclius' triumph in Conſtantinople, a town in Syria was pillaged by a band of robbers; but theſe robbers were the enthuſiaſtic followers of Mahomet.

At this period of great events, big with the fate of revolutions, the moſt important in the hiſtory of mankind, Mr. Gibbon ſtops to contemplate the various diviſions which Chriſtianity had admitted; the different ſects which had diſtracted the pure ſpirit of the Goſpel, by endleſs diviſions, and the moſt refined ſpeculations. Theſe wanderings of the human mind are not pleaſing, and the colours of the hiſtorian are not, to us, the moſt captivating. We ſhall haſten over a ſubject which even our hiſtorian's eloquence cannot adorn, and which his peculiar opinions often diſfigure.

The deſign of Mr. Gibbon, to give an account of the religious or political ſchiſm of the Eaſt, to compriſe the religious polemics of 250 years, is introduced by an enquiry into the doctrines of the primitive church. He explains the oppoſite ſects of the Ebionites and Docetes, the reconciling ſyſtem of Cerinthus, the divine incarnation of Apollinaris, with that modification of the ſyſtem of Cerinthus, the indiſſoluble union of perfect God with perfect man. Alexandria ſeemed the ſeat of orthodoxy and of turbulence. The ſpirit of Athanaſius, in the perſon of Cyril, combated another Arius in the milder and more peaceable Neſtorius. The firſt council of Epheſus, influenced by the violence, perhaps the treaſures of Cyril, condemned the tenets of the patriarch of Conſtantinople, who was dragged into exile, harraſſed by fruitleſs journeys, and tired with inceſſant perſecution. His tenets revived in the council of Chalcedon, from which we have borrowed our modern faith; but the patriarch was then no more. The throne of Alexandria, though Cyril was dead, did not want a tyrant, for Dioſcorus ſucceeded to the biſhoprick, and he did not want a victim, for the ſuppoſed, or the real hereſy of Eutyches ſupplied an object of perſecution, which, at laſt, proved fatal to Dioſcorus himſelf. The venerable Proterius, the next biſhop of Alexandria, was maſſacred, and another monk ſucceeded to the throne and the opinions of Dioſcorus.

The religious wars, and the civil conteſts, form an unpleaſing group in the picture of the religion of peace. Neſtorius and Cyril were occaſionally triumphant; and the legiſlator

Juſtinian

Juſtinian laid down the ſceptre, to diſpute as a monk, or to puniſh as a perſecutor. We have ſaid that he was orthodox; but his laſt years were ſtained, if a change of opinion can be called a ſtain, by the hereſies of Neſtorius and Eutyches.

The next period of controverſy was in the latter part of the reign of Heraclius, who raiſed the flame, by aſking whether Chriſt had one will, or a will ſubſervient to each of his natures? This ſpark, covered by the prudence of the Greeks, was cheriſhed by the Latin church, whoſe biſhops (the popes) in all the various controverſies, had more firmly eſtabliſhed their power, and more extenſively ſpread their influence. The flame which reſulted from it occaſioned a general council, and it was at laſt decided, though the deciſion was not final, that Chriſt had two wills. The union of the Greek and Latin churches was more than counterbalanced by the diviſion of the oriental ſects, a diviſion of opinions, titles, and language. It is uſeleſs to diſcriminate theſe ſhades of controverſy, or to explain at length the ſyſtems and the language of the Neſtorians, the Jacobites, the Maronites, the Armenians, the Copts, and Abyſſinians. The Jacobites, from Jacobus Baradæus, perhaps from St. James, were the believers of one nature, and the Maronites of one will. Their various miſſions have given a colour of diverſity to a religion of much ſimplicity; and the followers of Chriſt, in different regions, have conſequently looked on one another with religious horror.

The ſeventh and ſucceeding centuries furniſh a gloomy and obſcure proſpect to the hiſtorian. The clue of the annaliſt affords a feeble, and the encomiums of the panegyriſt, a ſuſpicious ray. It is not eaſy, therefore, to fill up the events of each reign; and our author has, on this account, in the fifth and ſixth volumes, changed his plan. He gives a ſhort account, as much as the hiſtory, if it can be called hiſtory, of the various periods affords, and points out how much each prince contributed to, or delayed the fall of the Roman empire. The rival nations, who preſſed forward on the empire, and contracted its narrow circle, begin to form objects of ſufficient magnitude to deſerve a conſideration ſeparate from that power with which they are before connected, becauſe they are greater than that power which kept them ſo long at a diſtance. They receive, therefore, the attention due to their importance, and the meagre hiſtory of the kings is concluded in the firſt chapter of the fifth volume. Mr. Gibbon ſhould, however, be permitted to explain his own plan.

'From theſe conſiderations (the paucity of materials) I ſhould have abandoned, without regret, the Greek ſlaves and their ſervile hiſtorians, had I not reflected that the fate of the Byzantine

zantine monarchy is paſſively connected with the moſt ſplendid and important revolutions which have changed the ſtate of the world. The ſpace of the loſt provinces was immediately repleniſhed with new colonies and riſing kingdoms: the active virtues of peace and war deſerted from the vanquiſhed to the victorious nations; and it is in their origin and conqueſts, in their religion and government, that we muſt explore the cauſes and effects of the decline and fall of the eaſtern empire. Nor will this ſcope of narrative, the riches and variety of theſe materials, be incompatible with the unity of deſign and compoſition. As, in his daily prayers, the Muſſulman of Fez or Delhi ſtill turns his face towards the temple of Mecca, the hiſtorian's eye ſhall be always fixed on the city of Conſtantinople. The excurſive line may embrace the wilds of Arabia and Tartary, but the circle will be ultimately reduced to the decreaſing limit of the Roman monarchy.

'On this principle I ſhall now eſtabliſh the plan of the two laſt volumes of the preſent work. The firſt chapter will contain, in a regular ſeries, the emperors who reigned at Conſtantinople during a period of ſix hundred years, from the days of Heraclius to the Latin conqueſt: a rapid abſtract, which may be ſupported by a general appeal to the order and text of the original hiſtorians. In this introduction, I ſhall confine myſelf to the revolutions of the throne, the ſucceſſion of families, the perſonal characters of the Greek princes, the mode of their life and death, the maxims and influence of their domeſtic government, and the tendency of their reign to accelerate or ſuſpend the downfal of the eaſtern empire. Such a chronological review will ſerve to illuſtrate the various argument of the ſubſequent chapters; and each circumſtance of the eventful ſtory of the Barbarians will adapt itſelf, in a proper place, to the Byzantine annals.'

We left Heraclius in the moment of triumph; it was a temporary ſplendor, for his reign was ſtained by his inceſtuous marriage with Martina, and his laſt years were obſcured by a blind ſubmiſſion to the caprices of his wife, and the indolence of eaſtern ſtate. The weakneſs of Conſtantine, his eldeſt ſon, was ſuppoſed to require an aſſiſtant; and Heracleonas, the ſon of Martina, was aſſociated with him in the empire. At the death of Heraclius, he fondly devoted the ſplendor and weight of royalty on Martina; and directed the aſſociated kings to obey her. The ſenate firmly and reſpectfully refuſed to confirm this nomination; and ſhe was ſuppoſed to have reſented it, by limiting the life of the weak and diſeaſed Conſtantine. She again aſcended the throne; but the tumults which her former conduct had excited were not leſſened by the recent ſuſpicions; and the ſon of Conſtantine was raiſed to the purple: the mutilated Martina and Heracleonas were ſent into exile, and were forgotten.

Conſtans could 'bear no brother near his throne.' Theodoſius was confined to the church, and, as even then, though no infallible power could diſſolve vows, he was ſcarcely ſafe: his life was ſoon terminated by poiſon; while the repenting Conſtans could not expiate his crime, as he was himſelf prematurely murdered. The ſon of Conſtans, Conſtantine IV. was ſcarcely more virtuous; and his grandſon, Juſtinian II. diſgraced the name which he bore, by vices the moſt enormous, and oppreſſion the moſt ſevere. Even the degenerate Byzantium could not bear the crimes which Juſtinian, in his wild moments, committed without heſitation, and of which, in his cooler ones, he did not repent. Ten years were filled with the catalogue of his exceſſes, when Leontius, a general of credit, was taken from the dungeon, and ſet on the throne. Sudden revolutions are ſeldom ſucceſsful. Apſimar dethroned Leontius; and Juſtinian, in exile, having purchaſed the friendſhip of ſome neighbouring hordes, overturned each uſurper. His vengeance was incompatible with the principles of a Chriſtian, and the feelings of a man: every mode of cruelty, every ſpecies of torture, was exhauſted. He fell at laſt by the hand of an aſſaſſin, who was even thought to have perpetrated a deed of virtue, and finiſhed the race of Heraclius. Three obſcure princes, Philippicus, Anaſtaſius II. and Theodoſius III. were ſucceſſively adorned with the purple. Of Anaſtaſius, hiſtory ſpeaks with ſome reſpect, for his reign ſeemed to promiſe happineſs and proſperity; but, without a legal title, each yielded to his more popular ſucceſſor, till Leo, more fortunate or more deſerving, eſtabliſhed the Iſaurian dynaſty.

[*To be continued.*]

Tranſactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. (Continued from Vol. LXV. page 439.*)*

IN the Phyſical Claſs of this reſpectable volume, after Dr. Walker's experiments, we meet with a Theory of Rain, by Dr. Hutton. This paper is very clear, and, if we admit of certain data, ſufficiently exact. It requires, however, that we ſhould grant rain to ariſe only from the varieties of heat and cold, as affecting the ſolvent power of the air, and this affinity to take place according to a given ratio, which, we think, experience will not ſupport. Whether the electricity of the air changes in conſequence of its depoſiting the water diſſolved in it, or the change is a cauſe of this depoſition, muſt remain uncertain; but, in either view, there muſt be an agent different from heat and cold, ſince the changes in theſe reſpects do not in other operations change the ſtate of electricity. Dr. Hutton ſuppoſes that heat and ſolution do not increaſe by equal increments; but that, in reality, if heat be ſuppoſed to increaſe

increaſe by equal increments along a ſtrait line, ſolution will be expreſſed by ordinates to a curve whoſe convex ſide is turned towards that line. That the power of ſolution is not increaſed in the ſame ratio with heat, is, however, hypothetical, except when we riſe pretty high in the ſcale, when its proportional increaſe is a little doubtful; and it is not, in this paper, ſupported by experiment. The condenſation of the breath, in air, is not an obſervation in point, except in air already ſaturated with vapour. It can amount, in any view, to no more than this, that to render it viſible, the heat muſt be diminiſhed in a greater proportion than can be compenſated by the power of ſolution in the body of air, in which the portion expired is, at firſt, immerſed. To explain rain from this cauſe, we muſt always ſuppoſe a conſtant diminution of heat to take place at the moment of the condenſation of the vapour; but we actually find that the change from a ſtate of vapour to the fluid ſtate is attended with heat; ſo that rain muſt at once oppoſe its own cauſe, and continued rains would be impoſſible, without calling in the aid of other cauſes. From his own ſyſtem, Dr. Hutton endeavours to explain the regular and irregular ſeaſons of rain, either reſpecting the generality of its appearance, or the regularity of its return; and to obviate the apparent exceptions to the theory, from the generality of rain. He explains the proportional quantities of rain, and adds a comparative eſtimate of climates, in relation to rain, with the meteorological obſervations made in our own climate. As his principle is, at leaſt, inſufficient, and, we think, erroneous, it will be uſeleſs to purſue theſe various branches, which muſt partake of the errors of the ſyſtem. In theſe branches we ought to obſerve, that there are ſeveral juſt obſervations mixed with errors, becauſe evaporation and condenſation muſt at laſt be the great baſis of every theory: the miſtakes ariſe from not being aware of all the cauſes, and miſrepreſenting the operation of thoſe which do exiſt. After all, it is a little diſgraceful to philoſophers to reflect, that what cheers the whole earth, ſupports and refreſhes its productions, is ſtill, even in the beſt ſyſtems, very imperfectly underſtood, though an occurrence ſo frequent.

III. On the Cauſes which affect the Accuracy of Barometrical Meaſurements. By John Playfair, A. M. F. R. S. Edin. and Profeſſor of Mathematics in the Univerſity of Edinburgh. —Much has been done in the meaſurement of heights by the barometer; but Mr. Playfair very properly obſerves, that ſomewhat ſtill remains. The allowance made on account of the temperature of the air implies an hypotheſis that has not been examined, or even pointed out, while many other circumſtances

cumſtances which affect the denſity of the atmoſphere have not been ſufficiently conſidered, or have been improperly expreſſed. It is the object of Mr. Playfair, in this paper, to correct the errors which ariſe from theſe cauſes, or at leaſt to ſhow the limits of the inaccuracies that may reſult from them.

It was only at a certain temperature, 69¼ of Fahrenheit, that the difference of the logarithms of the height of the mercury gave the height in 1000ths of a French toiſe. At every other temperature, ſome correction was neceſſary; but this correction depended on an aſſumed principle, that an arithmetical mean, between the extremes, gave the medium heat, or that the heat diminiſhed uniformly: from particular examination, Mr. Playfair thinks that this is nearly true. The condenſation produced by this diminution is not probably uniform; for, though expanſion increaſes with heat continually, it does not increaſe uniformly, and it is often greater in proportion to the preſſure which the air ſuſtains. General Roy's correction, in our author's opinion, is not accurate.

There is another inequality which muſt alſo be conſidered: the denſity of the air is not as its compreſſing force in the ſame temperature. It requires a little correction, for the denſity increaſes faſter than the compreſſion, though not conſiderably. With a double force, about one-tenth muſt be added to the denſity; but this ſubject requires farther examination by experiment. In barometrical meaſurements, alſo, it has not been uſual to allow for the difference of gravity in the aſcent of the mountain. The weight of each particle of air is too great; but this has been ſometimes allowed for: the weight of the column of mercury, in the barometer on the ſurface, is alſo too great; and theſe errors make the height of the mountain too little. The operation of moiſture, as it affects the weight and elaſticity of the air, ſhould, in our author's opinion, be alſo taken into the account; yet this remains to be aſcertained by experiment. The various corrections are then examined with very great accuracy; and this part of the paper, which we cannot abridge, deſerves particular attention. The horizontal diſtance alſo of the two barometers requires a correction which is not yet underſtood; it is not even determined what is the height of the barometer at the level of the ſea, in different places. Under the Line it is 29.853, and, in Britain, 30.04, making the proper corrections for the difference of temperature. Solution of water in air, perhaps from the heat conveyed by it, increaſes the elaſticity of the air very conſiderably, yet the moiſture has no effect till it is diſſolved. The expanſion is increaſed by every addition of heat; at the boiling point, it becomes nine times that of dry

air.

air. In very dry air, this makes a conſiderable difference in the meaſurement; yet, for want of being able to aſcertain its quantity at any given time in the air, it is not eaſy to employ the neceſſary corrections. M. Sauſſure's experiments have aſſiſted us in this progreſs, and, from the attention now paying to the ſubject, we have reaſon to believe that we may ſoon obtain ſome farther elucidations. There is much ingenuity in our author's ſuggeſtion of making two barometers ſubſervient to hygrometry. If one be placed in a building or tower, of a known height, and the other at the bottom, the difference, above or below the real difference from height, or heat aſcertained by correſponding thermometers, will mark the variety of diſſolved moiſture. The height ought not to be leſs than 100, or greater than 500 feet. This method may be very uſeful, as our author obſerves, in aſtronomy, and it will not ſuperſede the other hygrometers, for they only ſhow the diſpoſition of the air to depoſit humidity, in conſequence of the hygrometrical affinities.

Art. IV. On the Uſe of Negative Quantities in the Solution of Problems by Algebraic Equations. By William Greenfield, M. A. F. R. S. Edin. Miniſter of St. Andrew's church, and Profeſſor of Rhetoric in the Univerſity of Edinburgh.—The negative quantity, in algebra, though often conſidered as a ſign of ſubtraction, frequently means more: in curves, it will denote the oppoſite ſide; and in lines, where, from whatever part unity begins, if the one ſide is more, the other ſide is leſs than unity. Baron Maſeres' aſſertion, that perhaps it had been better if negative roots had never been admitted into algebra, or were again diſcarded from it, draws forth our author's exertions in their defence. He gives a good hiſtory of negative algebra, if we may be allowed the term; but we are a little ſurpriſed, that he has overlooked Maclaurin, who, we believe, gave the firſt conſiſtent explanation of it. Our author endeavours to explain this ſubject, without conſidering the negative ſign as any thing but the ſign of ſubtraction, and without making any change in the common ſyſtems. He treats of equations, either determinate or indeterminate; and of the negative quantities which are not in the roots of the equation. Indeed, the explanations are very clear and conſiſtent, on the ſuppoſition that if *plus* ſignifies any one ſituation, minus will of courſe expreſs the oppoſite one.

Art. V. Experiments and Obſervations upon a remarkable Cold which accompanies the Separation of Hoar-Froſt from a clear Air. By Patrick Wilſon, M. A. F. R. S. Edin. and Profeſſor of Aſtronomy in the Univerſity of Glaſgow.—This is a continuation of the experiments publiſhed in the Philoſo-

phical Tranſactions for the years 1780 and 1781, noticed in our volumes LIId. p. 324. and LIVth. p. 302. reſpectively. It is pretty certain, that when bodies attract hoar-froſt from a clear air, there is a production of cold on their ſurfaces; and that the nature of the body makes no other change, except that ſome bodies have a greater power of ſeparating hoar-froſt than others. This quality particularly reſides in bodies whoſe ſurface is irregular. The diſpoſition of the air for parting with hoar-froſt is connected with the general ſerenity of the atmoſphere, and is interrupted, when any miſt or foggineſs comes on. The cold appears to be connected with the hoar-froſt imparted to bodies, not with the ſeparation in the air. Our author ſeems much at a loſs to explain theſe phænomena: he ſeems to ſuſpect, that the air, when the hoar-froſt is ſeparated, is capable of receiving and fixing a greater quantity of heat. The effect probably depends on the electricity of the air; for a ſtrong aurora borealis, briſk winds, and a moiſt atmoſphere, prevent it: we have much reaſon to believe that the earth ſubtracts the heat rather than the air. We know, in Lavoiſier and de la Place's experiments, the production of vapour ſubtracted ſo much heat, that though a hot iron was placed in a veſſel ſurrounded by ice, the heat abſtracted produced freſh ice on the top of the veſſel. The extrication of hoar-froſt undoubtedly requires an action of ſome length of time, and therefore leads us ſtrongly to ſuſpect that ſome other agent is required than the ſurrounding air. This paper contains many valuable and important facts; and we hope that the author will purſue his enquiries.

Art. VI. An Account of the Method of making a Wine, called by the Tartars Koumiſs; with Obſervations on its Uſe in Medicine. By John Grieve, M. D. F. R. S. Edin. and late Phyſician to the Ruſſian Army.—It is made with fermented mare's milk, and borrowed in Ruſſia from the Tartars.

'Take of freſh mares milk, of one day, any quantity; add to it a ſixth part of water, and pour the mixture into a wooden veſſel; uſe then, as a ferment, an eighth part of the ſoureſt cows milk that can be got; but, at any future preparation, a ſmall portion of old Koumiſs will better anſwer the purpoſe of ſouring; cover the veſſel with a thick cloth, and ſet it in a place of moderate warmth; leave it at reſt twenty-four hours, at the end of which time the milk will have become ſour, and a thick ſubſtance will be gathered on the top; then, with a ſtick, made at the lower end in the manner of a churn-ſtaff, beat it, till the thick ſubſtance above mentioned be blended intimately with the ſubjacent fluid: in this ſituation leave it again at reſt for twenty-four hours more; after which pour it into a higher and narrower veſſel, reſembling a churn, where

the agitation muſt be repeated, as before, till the liquor appear to be perfectly homogeneous; and, in this ſtate, it is called Koumiſs; of which the taſte ought to be a pleaſant mixture of ſweet and ſour. Agitation muſt be employed every time before it be uſed.'

It has been found ſerviceable in hectics and in nervous complaints. A ſmall quantity of ſpirit may be diſtilled from it, and a leſs proportion from the wine of cows milk, prepared in the ſame way, which is conſidered as leſs valuable, in a medical view, than the Koumiſs.

Art. VII. An Improvement of the Method of correcting the obſerved Diſtance of the Moon from the Sun or a fixed Star. By the rev. Mr. Thomas Elliot, miniſter of the Goſpel at Cavers.—It is impoſſible to abridge the ſolution of this problem: it is to find the true diſtance of the moon's centre from a fixed ſtar, or from the centre of the ſun, from their apparent diſtance, together with the altitude of their centres.

Art. VIII. Account of a remarkable Agitation of the Waters of Loch Tay: in a Letter from the reverend Mr. Thomas Fleming, Miniſter of Kenmore, to the rev. John Playfair, M. A. F. R. S. Edin. and now Profeſſor of Mathematics in the Univerſity of Edinburgh.—This agitation occurred on the 12th of September, 1784. After ſome time, in which it ebbed and flowed, there was a violent undulation from two waves, in the oppoſite direction of eaſt and weſt, meeting in the middle of the lake: the weather calm; the clouds ſeemingly directing from the north-eaſt, and the barometer at $29\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

Art. IX. Abſtract of a Regiſter of the Weather, kept at Branxholm for ten Years, ending December 31, 1783.—This regiſter we are not able, in our preſent circumſtances, to abridge. It preſents, however, nothing very remarkable, except that the average quantity of rain for ten years, at Langholm, is more than 36 inches; and at Branxholm more than 31.

Art. X. Theory of the Earth; or an Inveſtigation of the Laws obſervable in the Compoſition, Diſſolution, and Reſtoration of Land upon the Globe. By James Hutton, M. D. F. R. S. Edin. and Member of the Royal Academy of Agriculture at Paris.—This is an extenſive treatiſe rather than a paper for a philoſophical ſociety; and if it carries us ſomewhat farther than we uſually proceed in the examination of ſuch memoirs, it muſt be attributed to the importance of the ubject, and the merit of the author; for we can allow him great merit, though we differ from him in many reſpects. After conſidering the ſubſtance of this globe in general, and the active principles which give it animation, Dr. Hutton proceeds to enquire, whether it may not have ſuch a conſtitution

as will tend to repair the neceſſary decay of the machine. This conſideration leads him to ſurvey its conſtituent parts. There are two great hinges on which Dr. Hutton's ſyſtem turns; the one is, that all calcareous matter is of animal production; and ſecondly, that the cementation of calcareous and other earths is from fire, which is alſo the agent that has raiſed them from the bottom of the ſea. Theſe principles are probably true only to a certain extent.

No propoſition is more certain, than that there was a period in which the world was not inhabited, even by fiſhes, while it was covered by the waters, as it ſeems to have been for a long time, or by plants, after its emerging from the water. The proof of this poſition is very ſimple: in earths which form the hardeſt and moſt compacted ſtrata, which give ſolidity to land, there are neither the exuviæ of animals, or the impreſſions of animals or plants. In many lime-ſtones there are none, particularly in thoſe lime-ſtone rocks in which flints are interſperſed. We may allow, for it is probably true, that many, perhaps the greater part of calcareous rocks, are of animal origin; but many are alſo merely depoſitions from water, particularly thoſe vaſt horizontal ſtrata in the lime-ſtone country in America. The ſand, which is not compoſed of the fragments of ſhells, is flinty; and we have great reaſon to believe, that ſand in general is of this latter kind, ſo that our author claſſes it erroneouſly among the calcareous matters.

Dr. Hutton's next poſition, that fire is the conſolidating power in ſtrata, is ſtill leſs generally true. It cannot conſolidate ſubſtances not fuſible; and, in calcareous ſtrata in particular, the effect would be very different; for lime has leſs coheſion than the rock of which it is formed. He thinks that depoſition would not produce the coheſion which we obſerve. It is not eaſy to ſay, that the attraction continuing through many ages, would not have this effect: we have reaſon from facts to ſuppoſe that it would do ſo; but in this change, there is another power that co-operates, cryſtallization. We know that this operation is very extenſive where there is no appearance of diſtinct forms; and the chemiſt who has left his earthy ſolutions long undiſturbed in his elaboratory, finds the firmeſt earthy concretions in the bottom. Our author too is at a loſs for a quantity of water neceſſary for the ſolution. We might cut this matter very ſhort, by ſaying, with M. Morveau, that we know not the efficacy of compound menſtrua; and adducing his experiments, which we lately mentioned in our account of the Dijon Memoirs, in ſupport of the ſuſpicions we entertain of their powers. We might aſſiſt them with our author's own remark, which, in his opinion, increaſes the difficulty,

difficulty, that the lime-ſtone contains many inſoluble ſubſtances, though it only ſhews that the menſtrua were compounded ones. But while this ſolution would be ſufficiently ſatisfactory, we are more willing to turn to another view of the queſtion occaſionally hinted at in our Journal, viz. the very great diminution of water in this globe, of which there are many evidences. We now have great reaſon to believe, that water may be compounded, and again decompoſed. After it had performed its operations, it was probably employed for other purpoſes. Its pure part might have added the power of ſuſtaining life to more numerous inhabitants, and its inflammable portion might have contributed to render minerals of every kind more rich: the agents of this great change might have been the numerous woods with which the earlieſt continent was ſo long covered. But to return: our author does not conſider the cryſtallization and conſolidation as ſufficiently powerful, and he therefore employs the heat. He finds evidences of heat in the ſoftening of the parts, in the impreſſion which neighbouring parts make on each other, but does not ſeem to be aware, that the heat which would make theſe changes in the apyrous earths, particularly in the calcareous, would melt the flinty earths, and deſtroy ſome other kinds. If granites were conſolidated in this way, we ſhould not ſee quartz in its cryſtalline form. Beſides, if fuſion gave this hardneſs, how can we account for the living toad in blocks of lime-ſtone, for nuclei of water in flints? The formation of flints we think a very difficult ſubject at any rate; and, when we conſider all their appearances, we cannot attribute them to one cauſe. We once ſuppoſed, and we do not conſider the ſuppoſition as unreaſonable, that they appeared in their preſent form from the fluor acid air meeting with water, or a moiſt nucleus. This opinion will explain the appearance of the foſſils which Dr. Hutton has deſcribed; but it will not explain all the appearances of flint, which we muſt ſometimes refer, with M. Morveau, to the operation of compound menſtrua The origin of flint muſt be looked for in granite.

The iron-ſtones which afford the ſeptaria, between which there are other cryſtals, are well deſcribed: they are in many reſpects curious.

'The form of theſe iron-ſtones is that of an oblate or much compreſſed ſphere, and the ſize from two or three inches diameter to more than a foot. In the circular or horizontal ſection, they preſent the moſt elegant ſeptarium; and, from the examination of this particular ſtructure, the following concluſions may be drawn.

'1ſt. That the ſepta have been formed by the uniform contraction of the internal parts of the ſtone, the volume of the

central parts diminiſhing more than that of the circumference; by this means, the ſeparations of the ſtone diminiſh, in a progreſſion from the centre towards the circumference.

'2d. That there are only two ways in which the ſepta muſt have received the ſpar with which they are filled, more or leſs; either, 1ſt. by inſinuation into the cavity of the ſepta after theſe were formed; or, 2d, by ſeparation from the ſubſtance of the ſtone, at the ſame time that the ſepta were forming.

'Were the firſt ſuppoſition true, appearances would be obſervable, ſhewing that the ſparry ſubſtances had been admitted, either through the porous ſtructure of the ſtone, or through proper apertures communicating from without. Now, if either one or other of theſe had been the caſe, and that the ſtone had been conſolidated from no other cauſe than concretion from a diſſolved ſtate, that particular ſtructure of the ſtone, by means of which the ſpar had been admitted, muſt appear at preſent upon an accurate examination.

'This, however, is not the caſe, and we may reſt the argument here. The ſepta reach not the circumference; the ſurface of the ſtone is ſolid and uniform in every part; and there is not any appearance of the ſpar in the argillaceous bed around the ſtone.

'It, therefore, neceſſarily follows, that the contraction of the iron-ſtone, in order to form ſepta, and the filling of theſe cavities with ſpar, had proceeded *pari paſſu*; and that this operation muſt have been brought about by means of fuſion, or by congelation from a ſtate of ſimple fluidity and expanſion.

'It is only further to be obſerved, that all the arguments which have been already employed, concerning mineral concretions from a ſimply fluid ſtate, or that of fuſion, here take place. I have ſeptaria of this kind, in which beſides pyrites, iron-ore, calcareous ſpar, and another that is ferruginous and compound, there is contained ſiliceous cryſtals; a caſe which is not ſo common. I have them alſo attended with circumſtances of concretion and cryſtallization, which, beſides being extremely rare, are equally curious and intereſting.'

While we admit that theſe changes may ariſe from fire, it muſt be with a reſerve for other occaſions, that retraction is ſometimes owing to drying, without the aſſiſtance of any extraordinary degree of heat. In the agates, for inſtance, bodies ſo evidently lamellated, which our author adduces alſo as proofs of fuſion, we cannot admit it. While lamellæ preſerve an angular outline, they cannot have ariſen from fuſion without the aſſiſtance of a mould. In theſe facts we think it pretty clear, that the external coat was added afterwards, in a ſubſequent operation, to the formation of the cryſtal. As we have mentioned the appearance of water in flint, among the objections to its fuſion, candour requires, that we ſhould ſubjoin our author's anſwer.

'It

'It muſt not be here objected, that there are frequently found ſiliceous cryſtals and amethyſts containing water; and that it is impoſſible to confine water even in melted glaſs. It is true, that here, at the ſurface of the earth, melted glaſs cannot, in ordinary circumſtances, be made to receive and incloſe condenſed water; but let us only ſuppoſe a ſufficient degree of compreſſion in the body of melted glaſs, and we can eaſily imagine it to receive and confine water, as well as any other ſubſtance. But if, even in our operations, water, by means of compreſſion, may be made to endure the heat of red-hot iron without being converted into vapour, what may not the power of nature be able to perform? The place of mineral operations is not on the ſurface of the earth; and we are not to limit nature with our imbecility, or eſtimate the powers of nature by the meaſure of our own.'

A very little reflection will ſhow, that this anſwer is only applicable to water confined during heating: but here, from the hypotheſis, the veſſel is formed by the heat. What then would become of water during that operation? We are ſorry that, by taking the outline of the argument only, we cannot inſert various deſcriptions of ſome curious ſubjects in natural hiſtory, or give our remarks that extent which the merit of Dr. Hutton's paper would otherwiſe deſerve.

He afterwards proceeds to inveſtigate the natural operations employed in the production of land above the ſurface of the ſea. Undoubtedly, ſubterraneous fire is one of the moſt univerſal agents in this vaſt operation; but we muſt alſo admit of either a gradual ſubſiding of the water, or a change of the bed of the ocean; perhaps both may have had ſome effect. The ſea undoubtedly leaves vaſt tracts of land, and gains on other continents; but we, in general, ſee many marks of the ſea having left the land, and few of its having gained on it. We are therefore inclined to add to the operation of fire a diminution of the quantity of water. Dr. Hutton conſiders ſubterraneous fire as the renovating power mentioned in the beginning of his memoir; and thinks its operation more extenſive than we have been uſed to conſider it. He obſerves, that he has ſtrong evidence of the Sicilian jaſper having been once in fuſion; we have little doubt of it. The toad-ſtone is a volcanic production; but our author extends this cauſe alſo to the production of whinſtone: and to explain the variety of its appearance, makes a diſtinction between erupted and unerupted volcanic lavas. To extend this ſyſtem too far, is the ſureſt method of bringing it into diſrepute; yet there is evidently a foundation for our author's diſtinction, though it is not eaſy to ſay, without much farther examination, how far it may be carried. He contends, that in erupted lavas, the air eſcaping, carries off

the calcareous earth and vitrified materials, in the form of pumice-ſtone and aſhes. The lime-ſtone is only found in thoſe volcanic productions which ſeem to have congealed under the preſſure of the earth.

Dr. Hutton at laſt proceeds to his ſyſtem of decay and renovation of the earth. In this enquiry, he traces foſſil wood, eaten by worms of the ſea, riſing again in a mineral form in our continent: he ſees new worlds riſing at the bottom of the preſent oceans: a new continent at the moment of its origin, in the ſcattered iſlands of the Pacific; and in imagination perceives ſucceſſive lands overwhelmed by ſucceſſive oceans, and theſe in turn producing new kingdoms, to be peopled by other nations. The mind cannot comprehend ſo vaſt a ſyſtem; and various enquiries into the ſource of thoſe foſſils on which it is built, are required before it can be eſtabliſhed: yet let us add a deſcription of a foſſil, which we received from a very intelligent correſpondent. A piece of lava, rounded by rolling in the ſea, was found imbedded in a maſs of tufa, at a great diſtance from the preſent ſea. It was once, perhaps, ſiliceous and argillaceous ſtone, burnt in a volcano, ſeparated from the maſs, rolled for ages in the ſea, fixed again in a maſs of new-formed ſtone, where it had remained from beyond the earlieſt records of preſent hiſtory. Where will all theſe reflections carry us; to that BEGINNING, when we are told in Scripture, that God formed the heaven and the earth, to that period when it was without form and void? The duration of this ſtate we know not; nor when the Lord determined to make man in his own image. The books of Moſes relate to man; all before his creation is related by the ſacred hiſtorian in one line.

We are ſorry that we muſt defer what remains of this intereſting volume to another Number.

An Account of the Pelew Iſlands, ſituated in the Weſtern Part of the Pacific Ocean. Compoſed from the Journals and Communications of Captain Henry Wilſon, and ſome of his Officers. By George Keate, Eſq. F. R. S. and S. A. 4to. 1*l.* 1*s. in Boards.* Nicol.

WHERE the ſea burſts through the Straits of Malacca and the Straits of Sunda, to waſh the ſouthern coaſts of China, it ſeems to have cut off a vaſt ſpot of land, which, from ſimilar cauſes, is again divided into minute iſlands on the eaſt of the Aſiatic continent, of which they perhaps once formed a part. The vaſt iſlands of Borneo, Cælebes, and New Guinea, with New Holland of a ſize to vie with a continent, are the reſults of this diviſion; and, farther eaſt, the broken

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and disjointed Philippines were for a time the limits of our knowlege of this part of the globe. It was in this neighbourhood, at Formoſa, that Pſalmanazar fixed the ſcene of his deceptions, becauſe, from our ignorance of it, he hoped to eſcape detection. To the eaſt of the Philippines are ſome diſtinct inſulated ſpots, which are deſcribed in this volume, called the Pelew Iſlands. They occupy the place where, in the beſt charts, the Carolines are ſituated; but, from the accounts of our preſent navigators, it is probable, that the latter ſhould be removed farther eaſt, and that they are ſcattered from the 140th to the 157th degree of eaſt longitude. The Pelew Iſlands, if we take the centre, and the capital for our ſtandard, are in 135 degrees of eaſt longitude, and about 60 degrees 20 minutes north latitude.

Though the larger iſlands are probably fragments of an inundated continent, theſe are humbler accumulations of coral, chiefly diſcovered to the Engliſh by the misfortunes of the Antelope, which was wrecked on one of the reefs. Mr. Keate, the hiſtorian of the voyages, ſuppoſes that they have been hitherto unnoticed, and that the relations in the Lettres edifiantes & curieux related to the New Carolines. He adds, that they were probably firſt noticed by the Spaniards from the Philippines, and by them named Palos, from the number of trees reſembling the maſts of ſhips. The whole of our author's introduction is erroneous. They were firſt diſcovered by a French Jeſuit, Pere Papin, who ſeems to have been directed by one of the inhabitants who had found his way to the Manillas, and was baptized there. They were again noticed in 1724, by P. Cantova, who ſaw, at Agdana, the capital of the Marian iſlands, ſome of the inhabitants; and, from their account, gives a deſcription not very favourable indeed, or true, of theſe harmleſs iſlanders. In deſcribing the manners of the Carolines, a province of which the Palos iſlands are ſuppoſed to be, he deſcribes, in reality, the hoſpitable hoſts of captain Wilſon and his crew. The name of Palos reſembling ſo much that of one or two of the iſlands, gives immediate ſuſpicion of our hiſtorian's etymology; but, to put an end, at once, to diſcuſſion, P. Cantova tells us, that the iſlanders themſelves, or rather their neighbours, who knew not a word of Spaniſh, called it by a ſimilar name. It is not extraordinary, that in the period from 1710 and 1783, all memory of Europeans ſhould be loſt among a people who can record by knots only, like the Peruvian Quipos. The New Carolines, the Pelew Iſlands, and St. Andrew's Iſlands, are laid down in the map in the Lettres edifiantes & curieux, nearly as the map annexed to the preſent volume. Their abſolute and relative ſituation are almoſt alike;

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but the former contains many more iſlands than the latter. As the information we have drawn from theſe Letters is ſo different from Mr. Keate's, who quotes them with a confidence which we ſhould ſuppoſe could have been raiſed only on actual examination, we muſt be particular in our references. P. Cantova's deſcription, which our author has ſeen, occurs in the fifteenth volume; and the paſſage which relates to the names, differing only as Paleos, Panlieu, and Pelilieu, p. 301. of that volume. The relation of the diſcovery, by P. Papin, is in the eleventh volume, p. 353; and it is repeated in the fifteenth volume, p. 321. Our edition is the new one, publiſhed at Paris in 1781: but Papin's relation occurs in the ninth volume, p. 418. of the old edition.

Mr. Keate ſeems to have been particularly careful in his examinations of the journals, and in comparing the accounts of different officers and ſeamen of the crew. It is highly probable that the facts are correct; but the colourings are certainly adventitious: there is too much affectation of ſentiment, too great diſplay of extraordinary ſenſibility, and the whole is unreaſonably extended. The reflections are, however, ſometimes new, the facts uncommon, and the events wonderful and intereſting. The young Lee Boo, who came to England with captain Wilſon, is a very amiable and attractive figure in the ſcene. On the whole, we have read the work with great ſatisfaction and (we ſpeak for ourſelves) entertainment. Thoſe who are fond of ſeeing the human mind expand in a peculiar ſituation, or of ſurveying human nature ſtruggling with difficulties, or overcoming them by extraordinary though ſimple contrivances, will, we think, receive equal entertainment. Let us, however, extract a little of it.

The Antelope, we have ſaid, was wrecked on the moſt windward iſland, the Oroolong: there are a few difficulties which occur to us from the previous journal; but they are not of importance. This iſland gave a ſhelter to the crew; and, whoever may have been the firſt diſcoverer, it is now an Engliſh iſland, from the beſt of titles, the donation of the king, with the conſent of his ſubjects. The inhabitants of the Pelew Iſlands are deſcribed in very flattering colours. They are gentle, delicate, ſenſible, and humane. Their humanity was obvious by their kindneſs to our navigators, and was only obſcured for a time, in their war, from motives of policy and ſelf-defence: their ſenſibility was evinced by the tenderneſs of their good offices, as well as their affectionate anxiety for the future welfare of their viſitants; and their delicacy, by their often forbearing to aſk what from the ſituation of their gueſts might be conſtrued into a demand. It has been remarked, that all the

the islands of the Pacific seem to have been peopled from one stock. The Pelews resemble the Otaheitans in many respects, but are without any portion of licentiousness, without their excesses, almost without their propensity to theft. Yet a little of the latter was observed; and, when we reflect on the infinite value of their object, an importance not capricious but real, and founded on the most urgent necessities, while the owners seem to pay but little attention to it, we shall for a moment excuse them. We must add, that the trifling thefts were restored without any very particular exertions. From this list of their virtues we must make a little drawback on account of their poverty. Their island, raised by the coral from the ocean, affords them no quadrupeds, except some wild rats, with three or four meagre cats, and a pigeon only from among the fowls *. Their food is cocoa-nuts, yams, fish, and fruit: their luxuries sweet-drink, the beetle-nut, with lime. They go naked, except that the females have the light partial covering of the mat; their ornaments are ear-rings, and the marks of the tatoo; their houses and their tools are of their own manufacture. The king seems a beneficent chief, who aims at excelling, because he may instruct his subjects: his best praise is, that he makes a hatchet better than any of his islanders. Their language consists of the soft effeminate sounds of the South Sea; but they excel the Otaheitans in pronunciation: they can pronounce the k, and even Kooker is one of the names of a chief, and Raa Kook of their general. The arts, of course, are at a low ebb; but in the causeways of these islanders we see a work constructed with skill, because of indispensible necessity, to which they may have owed the contrivance, in common with the Mexicans, without the suspicion of instruction or imitation. Their war is carried on at a distance, with lances, which they throw with great expertness; and, in these little secluded spots, where there is no rivalship, no object worthy of contention, islanders fight against their neighbours, and five Englishmen with musquets have terminated the campaign with success. Their religion is little more than superstitious notions of lucky and unlucky, with some belief of a good and evil principle, for the ruder tribes are Manichæans almost without exception. Let us now give some more particular account from the historian, in his own words; and we must first introduce their persons to the reader.

'The natives were of a deep copper colour, perfectly naked, having no kind of covering whatsoever; their skins very soft and glossy, owing, as was known afterwards, to the external

* Our people afterwards discovered common fowls; but the natives had never eaten them; they saw too some other birds on the wing.

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use of cocoa-nut oil. Each chief had in his hand a basket of beetle-nut, and a bamboo finely polished and inlaid at each end, in which they carry their *chinam*; this is coral burnt to a lime, which they shake out through one end of the bamboo where they carry it, on the leaf of the beetle-nut, before they chew it, to render it more useful or palatable. It was observed that all their teeth were black, and that the beetle-nut and chinam, of which they had always a quid in their mouths, rendered the saliva red, which, together with their black teeth, gave their mouths a very disgusting appearance.—They were of a middling stature, very straight, and muscular, their limbs well formed, and had a particular majestic manner in walking; but their legs, from a little above their ancles to the middle of their thighs, were tatooed so very thick, as to appear dyed of a far deeper colour than their skin; their hair was of a fine black, long, and rolled up behind, in a simple manner, close to the back of their heads, and appeared both neat and becoming.—None of them except the younger of the king's two brothers, had a beard; and it was afterwards observed, in the course of a longer acquaintance with them, that they in general plucked out their beards by the root; a very few only, who had strong thick beards, cherished them and let them grow.'

What contributed to the advantageous reception of our people, was finding a Malay, who came there by an accident, which he did not choose fully to explain. But the benefit derived from an interpreter, for one of the crew could also speak the Malay language, was more than counterbalanced by the Malay's duplicity and treacherous insinuations. More was owing to the guarded propriety of captain Wilson, and the very regular behaviour of the crew in general, whose prudence and good conduct deserve the highest commendations. We shall extract a noble reproach from the general Raa Kook to the treacherous Malay, and another of the king, on account of some suspicions which the crew seemed to have conceived.

'On landing at Pethoule, they were all conducted to a large house by the water side, where being seated, the presents were brought and laid before the king, when the use of the tools, and the method of working with them, were shown to him and his chiefs, with which they appeared very much pleased; and a conversation took place between the king and them, but particularly with Raa Kook; towards the close of which, the Malay, Soogle, remarked to them, that the English had sent no musquets; for this impertinent observation, he received a severe rebuke from the general, who, with a look, and in a tone that testified great indignation, replied, the English had faithfully kept their word, in sending the things they had sent, and in acquainting them of the time of their departure; that they had not spoken with two tongues, as he, worthless Malayan! had dared to suggest; and that he had brought shame upon them all,

all, by his advising the king to send only boiled yams to the English, lest, in sending them raw, they should thereby stock themselves, and leave the islands without notice, or without presenting them those things they had promised.—This pointed rebuke of Raa Kook affected the king and chiefs very much, who by their looks testified their displeasure at the Malay, in such a manner, that he thought it prudent to retire.'

Again:

'What is there (said the king) can make you harbour doubts of me? I never testified any fear of you, but endeavoured to convince you that I wished your friendship. Had I been disposed to have harmed you, I might have done it long ago; I have at all times had you in my power—but have only exercised that power in making it useful to you—and can you not confide in me at the last?'

We shall select another specimen of Mr. Keate's colouring.

'The meeting was, to his great surprise, very cool on the king's part, of course reserved on that of his own, far unlike, indeed, that undisguised openness which marked the interview of the preceding day.—And I doubt not but by this time the reader will have shared a portion of that concern, for his unfortunate countrymen, which was awakened in their bosoms by this unexpected alteration in the behaviour of the natives. What will he think of the hearts of these yet unknown inhabitants of Pelew?—He will have already loaded them with reproach, and judged, too hardly judged them to be an inconsistent, faithless people, on whom no reliance could be placed, whom no profession could bind.—His imagination may have started a multitude of conjectures, yet at last will probably suppose any thing sooner than the real cause which spread this visible dejection over their true character.—Never perhaps was exhibited a nobler struggle of native delicacy; their hearts burnt within them to ask a favour, which the generosity of their feelings would not allow them to mention.—The English had been and still were in their power; they had sought their protection as unfortunate strangers.—The natives had already shewn them, and still meant to shew them every mark of hospitality which their naked unproductive country could afford.—They conceived that what they wished to ask, as it might prove a temporary inconvenience, would look ungenerous; and that which most checked their speaking was, that, circumstanced as the English were with respect to them, a request would have the appearance of a command; an idea this, which shocked their sensibility.—The matter they laboured with was, in their opinions, of the highest imaginable consequence to them. The king had probably talked it over with his brothers the preceding day, had deliberated on it in the evening at the back of the island, and came to the cove this day determined to propose it, but when there, wanted resolution to make it known; yet the

object

object being so important, he felt unwilling to leave it in silence, and perhaps conceived that he could better disclose it from his canoe, than when surrounded by so many English.—After much apparent struggle in the king's mind, the request with great difficulty was at last made, and proved to be this:—that the king being in a few days going to battle against an island that had done him an injury, he wished captain Wilson would permit four or five of his men to accompany him to war with their muskets. Captain Wilson instantly replied, that the English were as his own people, and that the enemies of the king were their enemies.—The interpreter certainly very well translated this declaration, for in an instant every countenance, which was before overshadowed, became brightened and gay.'

The English assisted the king in different battles, against the inhabitants of Artingall, and at last procured for him an honourable peace. At first five, then ten, and afterwards fifteen were requested for this aid; and, in each combat, not one was wounded. It was a delicate reply of the king to captain Wilson, who requested him to dismiss these auxiliaries as soon as was possible. 'He could not in decency,' he said, 'send them back the moment he had had their services, but that he would keep them only two or three days, that they might be made gay, and rejoice with his own people, after subduing his enemies.' For this service, captain Wilson was made a Rupack, and had the order of the Bone conferred on him. If our readers smile at this, and think of Gulliver and the Nardack, we cannot blame them, for we did the same; though perhaps a bone may be really as honourable as a ribbon. It is said to be the bone of a whale, and it seems to be the first vertebra of the neck. It is worn on the wrist, and made to slide over the hand, though with no little difficulty.

The crew laboured assiduously on a new vessel, and at length completed it, in which they arrived safe at Canton, and at last reached England, concluding a voyage of discovery almost unexampled, where the host and the guest, with eager assiduity, and unremitted tenderness, aimed at making each other happy. Are we not all brothers, Sterne will say? at least we ought to be all friends. Our people evinced their friendship, by leaving them iron tools, some muskets, two geese and two dogs, unfortunately the two last were males.

This entertaining volume concludes with some anecdotes of Lee Boo, the king's son, who accompanied captain Wilson to England, and died here of the small-pox. This young man, about twenty years of age, seemed to have all the generous affection, all the grateful attention of the natives, with a spirit of observation, directed only to what was truly useful, and of patriotism,

patriotiſm, which pointed all his views and his obſervations to the ſervice of his native country.—Let us ſelect a little anecdote or two.

'Though part of his journey had paſſed during the night, yet, with returning day, his eyes had full employment on every ſide; and when he was got to what was now to be, for ſome time, his deſtined home, he arrived in all the natural glow of his youthful ſpirits. Whatever he had obſerved in ſilence, was now eagerly diſcloſed. He deſcribed all the circumſtances of his journey; ſaid it was very pleaſant—that he had been put into a little houſe, which was run away with by horſes—that he ſlept, but ſtill was going on; and, whilſt he went one way, the fields, houſes, and trees, all went another—every thing, from the quickneſs of travelling, appearing to him to be in motion.

'At the hour of reſt he was ſhewn by Mr. M. Wilſon up to his chamber, where, for the firſt time, he ſaw a four-poſt bed; he could ſcarce conceive what it meant—he jumped in, and jumped out again; felt and pulled aſide the curtains; got into bed, and then got out a ſecond time, to admire its exterior form. At length having become acquainted with its uſe and convenience, he laid himſelf down to ſleep, ſaying, that in England there was a houſe for every thing.'

We have room for no more; but, if we contraſt his conduct with Omai's, if we contraſt the Pelewians with the Otaheitans, the former will have a ſtriking advantage. They now reverence the name of Engliſhmen: we hope the coloniſts of Botany Bay will never find them, or at leaſt only after their projected reformation.

Luckily for Europeans, there was a draughtſman on board; and we are furniſhed with ſome very good drawings of the king and one of his wives; ſome characteriſtic rather than accurate (accurate we mean in point of keeping, &c. as drawings) repreſentation of the houſes and country, and ſome very expreſſive ones of their ornaments, weapons, &c. The volume concludes with a pretty copious gloſſary, copious we would ſay, conſidering the time of the ſtay, which amounted to three months, wanting two days.

A Diſſertation on the Properties of Pus; which gained the Prize Medal, given by the Lyceum Medicum Lond. for 1788. *By Everard Home, F. R. S. 4to. 2s. 6d.* Richardſon.

THERE muſt have been few candidates, or diſſertations of little value, when an eſſay, chiefly taken from Dr. Brugman's Theſis, publiſhed at Leyden in 1787, and from Mr. Hunter's Lectures, was thought worthy of the prize. What is more peculiarly the property of the anthor is of no great value.

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The diſtinction between pus and mucus, an object of ſome importance, is very ſlightly mentioned. When put in a microſcope, mucus is flaky and pus globular. We cannot carry a microſcope to the bed-ſide, to a country cottage, or the hovels of poverty; and in theſe places we often want information. Other diſtinctions, equally impracticable, in clinical attendance, but luckily not equally uſeful or neceſſary, we ſhall tranſcribe from our author.

"A drop of matter, and a drop of blood, were placed upon a piece of glaſs, at a ſmall diſtance from each other, and the glaſs was fixed under the magnifying lens of a microſcope: while in this ſituation, the point of a toothpick was dipped in a ſaturated ſolution of ſal ammoniac, and applied to each of them. This was repeated two or three times. The drop of matter, inſtead of appearing more diluted, became viſcid and ropy; and upon being examined through the magnifying glaſs, the globules appeared perfectly diſtinct in the coagulum.

"The drop of blood had no appearance of coagulation; on the contrary, it was more diluted.

"This experiment was repeated ſeveral times, and the reſults were always ſimilar."

'Pus differs from chyle, in its globules being larger; not coagulating by expoſure to the air, nor by heat, which thoſe of chyle do.

'The pancreatic juice contains globules; but they are much ſmaller than thoſe of pus.

'Milk is compoſed of globules, nearly of the ſame ſize as thoſe of pus; but much more numerous. Milk coagulates by runnet; which pus does not; and contains oil and ſugar, which are not to be diſcovered in pus.'

The teſt of ſal ammoniac has been of great ſervice in this enquiry, and our author found that good pus did not diſſolve a ſolid muſcular part; that it was neither acid or aceſcent; that it appeared on a ſuppurating ſurface, after fourteen hours, and on a ſecreting one after five hours. The firſt diſcharge is thin, and probably ſerum; it has no globules: the globules afterwards appear, though not numerous, and then become larger, and more numerous; but this change takes place when the thin fluid is removed from the body, and ſuffered to ſtagnate in the air. We ſhould think that it were impoſſible to miſs the concluſion from theſe facts, if our author had not looked forward to the medal which he was to receive as the prize, inſtead of his experiment. The immediate conſequence is, that the diſcharge is a natural fluid, containing a gelatinous body in ſolution, whoſe particles, on ſtagnation, run together, and become more conſpicuous in the ſurrounding fluid. If the change takes place *out* of the body, the ſame

change

change cannot be owing to an altered ſtate of the veſſels *in* the body. Mr. Home ſpeaks of hectics from abſorbed pus, as one of the opinions that are done away. It is too frequently the effect of looking round one little ſociety only, to ſuppoſe that it repreſents the whole world. The error is not peculiar to medicine, but, in this inſtance, we muſt beg leave to ſuggeſt that the opinion is ſtill very general, and that a few negative inſtances, where a hectic fever does not follow abſorption, are of little conſequence, when compared to the numerous ones of hectics which attend an abſceſs, and diſappear on opening it.

The Regent: a Tragedy. As it is acted at the Theatre Royal in Drury-Lane. 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Robſon *and* Clarke.

WE cannot deny that this play has ſome ſcenes truly dramatic and intereſting; yet, as a whole, it is liable to much cenſure. The plot is in the higheſt degree improbable; and the ſtyle is occaſionally vulgar, abſurd, bombaſtic, quaint, and affected. Of the firſt we have, among a variety of inſtances,

'You touch a tendon makes me *flinch*.'
'Now ſhall I *clutch* him.'
'Go to the *huddled* market-place, and there
Diſſect thy heart upon the public ſhambles,
To ſhew its *ſpongy* core to all the people.'

To bid a man diſſect his own heart is no very rational command. The ſentiment here is poſſibly more vulgar than the expreſſion. Again:

'—Down he *plumb'd*.'
'No plague have I, nor come from Lazar houſe.'
'—*Slive* the key-ſtone of the fabric,
And *topple* it with ruin in the duſt.'
'—the land *doz'd* in olive days.'

The latter phraſes are both vulgar and abſurd. Of the latter the inſtances are innumerable.

'Full oft the brine has waſh'd my ſleep away,
And bruſh'd my pinnace againſt beaked rocks.'
'——Clad in wrath, and *awleſs* war.'

Are we to underſtand by this, war that is afraid of nothing, or war that no one fears! We have likewiſe, 'A man of flint;' 'thick in gloom;' '*acrid* ſcowl;' 'both leaguer me;' 'a *haggard* charm that *dozes* every ſenſe.'

'——Deſpair with damning hold
Clings on ſo faſt: a wild of elephants
Were atomies to tear it from his trunk.'

What an image would this make if reduced to painting! Of this union of the abſurd and bombaſtic, one ſpecimen more will ſuffice.

'Th' abhorred ſtroke, *that hung upon my* poniard,
Cleft wide the ſulph'rous pit and tug'd him out.'

The moſt remarkable effect we ever met with of a blow—*not given!*

The quaint and affected diction, which may be traced in almoſt every page, appears principally owing to too cloſe an imitation of Shakſpeare, which is the caſe with moſt of our modern tragic writers. To imitate his excellencies is certainly not only allowable but right; yet, if the reſemblance to him is cauſed chiefly by adopting his peculiarities of ſtyle, and obſolete phraſes, inſtead of being pleaſed with the likeneſs, we are diſguſted with the caricature. Antiquated expreſſions, injudiciouſly blended with modern phraſeology, appear as ridiculous as Edward's armour beaming on the breaſt of Cibber. Addiſon laughed at ſome author, we believe Rowe, for profeſſing to have written a play in the manner of Shakſpeare, when the only likeneſs that could be found was in the following line:

'And ſo good morning to ye, good maſter Lieutenant.'

It is eaſier to copy the wry neck than the great actions of an Alexander.

Are not theſe expreſſions equally an affectation of Shakſpeare's language?

'—full much it marvell'd me.'
'Haſte to his embrace, ſweet.'
'Beſhrew theſe fits which evermore beſet me.'
'Thou'rt a truſty knave, and much I lean on thee.'

We might add conſiderably to the liſt: but at the ſame time we ought in juſtice to ſelect ſome paſſages written in Shakſpeare's beſt manner, and which he would not have diſdained to own. This deſcription of a man troubled with a guilty conſcience, ſtrikes us in that light:

'He's a villain certain;
Endures not ſolitude; is ever reſtleſs:
Nay, even 'mid the revelry of waſſail,
Sometimes black melancholy ſeizes on him,
And then ſtares he into the vacant air,
Glaring around with *epilepſied* eye;
After a while, as rouſing from a dream,
Though no one ſpake, he cries, "Forgive me, Sir;
"I mark'd you not—Now let's be merry, friends."
And thus he ſtrives to quell his troub'lous thoughts,
Which, ever and anon up boiling, plague him.'

The

The image in the following lines (we object, however, to 'paly brow') is pretty, perhaps beautiful:

'Fair Dianora thinks but on her ſon,
And, while he ſojourns at the court of Leon,
His abſence wears upon her ſhatter'd ſpirits.
But as the crocus opes its ſaffron veil,
To catch at morn the cloud-diſſolving ray,
And ſtain with deeper gold its paly brow;
So would her heart expand on ſight of Carlos,
And repoſſeſs the father in the child.'

Mr. Greatheed is not of the tame middling caſt of writers. Both the defects and beauties of this tragedy are prominent and conſpicuous. He writes with energy and ſpirit: but he evidently poſſeſſes more feeling than taſte, more genius than judgment.

Conſiderations on the War with the Turks. Tranſlated from the French of M. de Volney. 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Debrett.

MR. Volney's good ſenſe and extenſive experience of the diſpoſition of the Turks render his ſentiments valuable, and his judgment important. He examines the reſpective ſtate of the Turks and the Ruſſians, to decide not only on the probable event of the war, but on the expediency of a French interpoſition. The Turks were formerly, he ſays, beat by the Ruſſians with very inferior forces: they will therefore be probably beaten again, eſpecially as the Imperial power is united with that of the Czarina. In this interval, indeed, the Turks have felt the inconveniencies ariſing from the ceſſions at the laſt peace, but have made little progreſs in a comprehenſive plan for regaining their loſſes. The preſent flame burſt out with little foreſight, and ſcarcely any precaution. The French officers and engineers can afford but an inconſiderable aid, while an infidel is held in ſo great abhorrence: our author does not pretend to diſguiſe that the French, with all their boaſted influence, are treated with the moſt marked and decided contempt. The weakneſs of the Turkiſh power is well explained.

'Since the laſt mentioned ſovereign, Soliman the Second, who by his wiſe regulations and ordinances more than by his victories confirmed the Turkiſh power, we can ſcarcely in a liſt of ſeventeen monarchs find one riſing above mediocrity; but almoſt all intemperate madmen like Amuret IV. or effeminate, puſillanimous wretches, ſuch as Soliman III. This contraſt is eaſily explained, becauſe it naturally aroſe from the different ſituations of their affairs. When the Sultans lived in camps, agitated by the immenſe whirlwind of weighty concerns which ſurrounded them, by projects of war and conqueſt, by a continued variety of difficulties and ſucceſs, and even by the neceſſity of keeping a watchful eye over the companions of their

labours, their minds became as expanded as their career, their paſſions noble as their purſuits, and their adminiſtration vigorous as their character: when, on the contrary, they began to ſhut themſelves up in their ſeraglios, benumbed by indolence, ſatiated even to apathy, and depraved by the flattery of a ſlaviſh court, their minds contracted with their enjoyments, their inclinations were vilified by their habits, and their government grew as vicious as themſelves. When the ſultans held the reins of government in their own hands, their perſonal wiſhes led them to take a warm intereſt in the proſperity of the empire: but the moment they entruſted them to mercenary ſubſtitutes, unacquainted with the operations on foot, they ſeparated their own from the public intereſt.'

The character of the Ruſſians, and the hiſtory of their empire, are deſcribed, on the other ſide, with a flattering pencil. But, as we have not the original, we cannot pretend to explain an obſervation of our author, that though the Ruſſians are indifferent ſeamen, they have a prodigious advantage in point of ſkill.—If they are indifferent ſeamen, their ſkill muſt be inconſiderable, and the Turks are by no means deſpicable ſailors, though their officers are often ill-informed. In ſhort, the event of the war is yet uncertain: ſo far, at leaſt, the Turks have ſuſtained little loſs *. Ruſſia has not made any exertions by ſea; and her vaſt power muſt have been greatly exaggerated, when we find that ſhe depends on the ſeamen and tranſports of England and Holland for her exiſtence as a formidable marine force. By land too, ſhe advances ſlowly; and though we allow the plans of Ruſſia and the emperor to have been judicious, by chuſing the line of the rivers for their marching, and the central points for their operation, yet, in the coincidence of different motions, there are often delays, and not uncommonly diſappointments. We ſhould not be ſurpriſed if the war was to be concluded with little farther exertions. Thoſe that have been hitherto made by the emperor have certainly not been ſucceſsful.

M. Volney's work is replete with judicious political reflections and juſt obſervations; yet, in ſome inſtances, we differ from him. Sweden, Denmark, and Poland have, he thinks, great cauſes of alarm, from the ſucceſs of Ruſſia; but a little reflection will teach us a different concluſion. Let us ſuppoſe Ruſſia in poſſeſſion of the free navigation of the Black Sea, of the Dardanelles, and, if he pleaſes, of Conſtantinople. In a climate ſo advantageous, in circumſtances ſhe ſeems to have ſo long wiſhed for, ſhe will endeavour to purſue her plans, and, by commerce, render herſelf a maritime power. The Ruſſian empire will then have two heads, and cannot be governed

* This was the caſe at the time of writing this article: it is not *eſſentially* different at preſent.

but by a central situation. If the Czarina attaches herself to the Black Sea, she must of course neglect the Baltic and Finland. That she will do so is probable, and Denmark and Sweden will have no longer a formidable power at their doors. If she fixes in a central situation, she will govern neither part with success, if she ever carries her prospects and her operations far from home *. France, in M. Volney's opinion, should not interfere. The trade of Turkey, in the humiliating situation in which her merchants are placed, is not of sufficient consequence. If she could obtain possession of Ægypt, the prospect would be flattering; but so many inconveniencies must ensue that would destroy its value. Indeed, the question is not fairly stated. There will then be *two* additional maritime powers in the Mediterranean. That of the empire cannot soon be considerable; but it might be found of importance when the other powers are balanced.

At present, the balance is against France in the Turkish trade. The imports from Constantinople amount annually to twenty-six million of livres; the exports to twenty-four million; but this is more than compensated by the French taking only raw materials, and sending manufactured ones. M. Volney thinks, that England will not interpose, on account of the deranged state of her finances: we know that France cannot, for the same reason. Perhaps, from wisdom rather than necessity, both nations will not embarrass themselves with foreign wars. It is necessary to recover strength, and France still feels the fatal effects of blowing the flame of liberty.

The work before us deserves, however, great attention; and is a correct and animated performance. The translation is very well executed; but 'would' and 'will' for *should* and *shall* point out the inaccuracy, perhaps the provincial habits of the author; they do not occur except in two or three instances, and the language is, in general, equally spirited and correct.

Imperfect Hints towards a new Edition of Shakespeare. Part Second and Last. 4to. 6s. Robson *and* Clarke.

WHILE every publication engages our attention, a second part of a respectable one ought not to be overlooked: as we usually examine the successive volumes of a work, we consequently should not neglect succeeding parts. So much we would wish to say to our author; but on his Hints we must be more particular. The first part we examined in our LXIVth volume, p. 199. we received it with

* So just is our author's remark, 'that, in fact, great empires, so imposing by their gigantic outside, are no more than great bodies without vigour or spirit, because there is no longer any proportion between the machine and the spring that sets it in motion.'

much pleasure; and this second part does not disgrace the first: it displays the same spirit, the same enthusiasm, the same taste. The plays for which our author wishes to select ornaments are, King John, King Henry V. Romeo and Juliet, and Cymbeline. But the advertisement should first engage our attention.

The object of the preface is to enquire how far the scenes of Shakspeare have afforded subjects to the painter: it is the history of Shakspeare, as the school of painting, that delightful art, which gives stability to decaying beauty, and arrests the hand of time; which hurries away the evanescent idea of the actors' merit, but which must fix on a moment for its efforts, and is incapable of conveying with spirit and effect one moment more. Rubens and Vandyck turned their pencil to other subjects, and neglected those scenes which would have crowned their works with additional fame. It was not the moment of enthusiastic admiration; and, whatever we may attribute to the representations of Betterton, grace did not at that time adorn the stage, or give elegance to the action. Dramatic representations were, in every respect, unfit to awaken the mind of the painter; and the classic enthusiast, whose taste was refined by the models of Greece and Rome, as well as the literature of the most cultivated ages, would have perhaps found in Shakespeare more to reject than to admire, till the rust which covered his beauties, the crust which surrounded his diamonds, were removed.

'During the reign of Charles the Second, as well as during the succeeding reigns, there were many painters, from whom one might have expected some scenes from our great poet—as from Streater (if painting all the scenes at the old playhouse, and the portrait of Lacy the player, would have enabled him to paint from the genius of the poet)—from sir Peter Lely—Michael Wright—Zoust, who has given us a copy of some most graceful portrait of Shakespeare—from Kneller—and lastly from Vanbleck.

'It is somewhat extraordinary, that one has heard of no painting having ever been taken of the great tragedian Betterton, in any of those scenes of our poet, in which his powers of acting shone with such superior excellence—"all the Othellos, Hamlets, Hotspurs, Macbeths and Brutus's whom you may have seen since his time (says Cibber) have fallen far short of him." Cibber has so warmed himself with the recollection of Betterton's Hamlet, that his language approaches nearly to the force of painting. The other great actors whom Cibber mentions are equally unrecorded by the pencil.'

Our author then examines the various paintings and engravings which the magic of Shakspeare's genius has raised into form. His catalogue is full, extensive, and, so far as

we

we can perceive, complete: it is disfigured only by the frequent repetition of the words—'from after'—when he speaks of a drawing or an engraving from any painter's work.

'The vile creations of the fancy which the eye is so frequently wearied with (taken from the page of Shakespeare) and which are meant to describe to us the poet's scenes, convince one that it is no easy matter to design from Shakespeare. Indeed some of his scenes are so highly coloured, and display such daring efforts of true sublimity, that one must not expect to see them painted equal to their native spirit—for who thinks he can approach the fancy and nature of Shakespeare?—Had the scenes of Lear been even painted by Raffaelle: he himself would scarcely have expected to have entranced the mind more than what it feels by a bare perusal of them—and the daring Michael Angelo would have hesitated, ere he had attempted to throw on his canvass the solemnity of the enchantments in Macbeth, or the fire and enthusiasm which pervades the character of Richard. If the mind of the painter is not inspired by some portion of that celestial spirit which animated our Shakespeare: he must not expect that his work should cause other emotions than those of tame, unwilling, and parsimonious approbation.'

It is, perhaps, impossible to succeed completely: the mind, full of the images of the poet, forms an enthusiastic picture, which borrows its sublimity from its obscurity. No form can give it existence; because the image is without form; no grouping can add to its effect, because it rises superior to the arrangements of skill; and no representation of one moment can be adequate to the idea of successive ones. This must be the apology even for the best painters, if their works do not equal the enthusiasm of our poet's admirers.

The plays, which we have mentioned as the subject of these hints, afford humorous scenes, which will admit of embellishment. King John in particular is a rich study for a painter; and the character of Constance, in the various situations, will admit of admirable representations. It was the greatest dramatic exertion of Mrs. Crawford *; and every succeeding actress will attempt it with terror. It is in the scenes only, which represent her woes, that we are not rendered torpid by the puns of Shakspeare; these Medusa's heads, which at once turn the warm eager admirer of the poet into the coldest critic. We cannot extend our account of this second part, by mentioning the various scenes suggested to the choice of the painter; for, though not too numerous for the credit of the poet, they are probably more than the proposed subscription will admit of being executed. But we shall not conclude without a specimen of our author's manner, and we shall select it from

* Though she might not have equalled Mrs. Cibber, she exceeded Mrs. Yates in this part.

the ſcene of King John, where Arthur's eyes are to be burned out by the command of that weak and cruel tyrant; and where they are ſaved by the innocent, artleſs eloquence of the youthful pleader.

'The above is one of thoſe ſcenes that want "no kind entreaty to attend to them"—and the tears that flow from an artiſt on the peruſal, will beſt guide his pencil in painting the tender and eloquent pleading of Arthur: in a ſtyle, if poſſible, equal to that pathetic which Shakeſpeare has exhibited.

'How would Albano, or Titian, have painted Arthur—and how might ſir Joſhua Reynolds paint him!—the portrait of Edwin, from Beattie's minſtrel, and the entreating look and attitude of one of the children in Ugolino, will convince us what fine expreſſion he would give to Arthur—and the very ſoul of the dark but relenting Hubert, would be conveyed to us, through his pencil.

'The expreſſion in the face of Arthur, ſhould be what we have reaſon to ſuppoſe the meek diſpoſition of Raffaelle gave him, at his age of ten or twelve years old. He ſhould be what Shakeſpeare's Fidele was: a moſt rare boy of melancholy.'

Variety: a Collection of Eſſays. Written in the Year 1787. 12*mo.* 3*s.* 6*d.* Cadell.

THIS is the firſt volume of a collection of papers, intended to have been publiſhed weekly. But what can a Reviewer ſay of a volume where variety is the object, and where the author ſtarts

'From grave to gay, from lively to ſevere?'

His gravity is not the ſtyle of ſtudied diſquiſition, or his gaiety that of ſprightly wit: his ſpirit and his ſeverity are kept within proper bounds: yet his language and his remarks are neat, and often animated; his reflections ſolid; his examples appoſite; and his ſtories entertaining. We have found our author a pleaſing companion, and, as ſuch, we recommend him: but he ought alſo to recommend himſelf.

We ſhall ſelect our firſt inſtance from the ſport of partridge-ſhooting. The adventures of the morning are told with the eagerneſs and rapidity of a ſportſman. The ſpace the ſportſmen went over would be too much for *our* ſpace, ſo that we ſhall only tranſcribe the concluſion.

'In extreme haſte my gun is charged again, and I move on with pleaſing trepidation: the partridge whirrs from the pointer's noſe, and I take more certain aim; but drawing the trigger, I diſcover, that in my haſte I had forgot to prime. Now with my eyes only I purſue the happy fugitive; and this ſo occupies my thoughts, that diſappointment cannot find admittance; beſides, I exult in the reflection, that had my piece gone off I ſhould moſt certainly have killed my bird; and, while I am engaged in exultation, and in priming, the remainder

der of the covey takes wing, and points the direction we muſt follow. We now proceed, beating each field with unrelaxing diligence: we try ſwathe oats, or wheat, or barley ſtubbles; then look the clover; or turnips are more likely: in ſhort, each piece of land we enter, gives freſh hopes: we are ſure they muſt be there; but having beat this field and that, in vain, we have better founded hope of finding in the next adjoining; nor does expectation droop, beneath repeated diſappointment; at length the dogs are certain in the turnips, and we approach with ardour, heightened by delay; 'tis now a ſportſman only can reliſh what I feel; the dogs ſtand immoveable as blocks of ſtone, and the heart beats with rapture at the approaching moment; while I cautiouſly examine whether I have primed or not.—At length a partridge ariſes with ruſtling noiſe, and ſpreads his wings; my well-aimed gun quickly ſtops him in his flight and kills him on the ſpot.—This is the moment which a novice in the field would think the higheſt pitch of joy; but he is miſtaken; the pleaſure ceaſes with the victory; the lifeleſs animal is negligently thrown into the bag, and all the eagerneſs of haſty charging is repeated leſt other birds ſhould riſe, while I am unprepared. Thus the happineſs of ſporting, like that of every other object, is more in expectation than enjoyment; and having confined my illuſtration to the country gentlemen or ſportſmen, let none who ever drew a trigger at a partridge, preſume to judge of extacies which they may think overrated; but let them remember that energy, even in trifles, is neceſſary to conſtitute felicity in active minds; and that he who ſeeks happineſs with indifference in any purſuit of life, will never find it; he muſt be in earneſt, whatever he undertakes; and "what he does, he muſt do heartily."

Our author attacks the policy and utility of Sunday ſchools; but he attacks them unfairly. He takes the example of Dr. Johnſon, to ſhow that learning does not always promote happineſs: he ſeems to ſuſpect, from the ſame ſource, that it is not always favourable to virtue; but the 'ſecret ſins' of Johnſon borrowed their hue from his mind. To read muſt ſurely be an advantage; to be taught to reflect is an ineſtimable bleſſing, as it will often guard from the worſt vices. To go farther is beyond the plan of the inſtitution, and the errors which it may produce, it is not our object to defend; but, to a deſign ſo popular, it may be worth while to extract the oppoſition of our author, at leaſt one part of it.

'The ſecond great advantage promiſed by Sunday ſchools, viz. that the knowledge of reading will enable the poor to conſult thoſe books which contain the precepts of their duty in this life, and the hope of eternal happineſs in a life to come. But who will deny that the labouring poor, may not be infinitely better inſtructed in all that it behoves them to know, by the arguments of their ſpiritual teachers, than they can collect themſelves from the voluminous books of holy writ, which having

having been composed at various times and for various purposes, frequently contain matters so mysterious, and doctrines so contradictory, that it has required the industry of the ablest men to clear them from obscurity, and extract the perfect system of moral conduct, which the Christian religion (well understood) so admirably inculcates.

'Amidst the endless variety of religious sects, all are warranted by passages from scripture; yet there are many subversive of all morality, and injurious to the well-being of society. Such are the doctrines of Methodists, so universally prevalent, respecting the efficacy of faith and saving grace. We see the country over-run by a set of people whose influence is prodigious, and daily increasing. Some thousand preachers are disseminated through all parts of England, and even planted in our most distant territories, to plunder the scanty pittance of credulous industry, while they recommend enthusiasm, and palliate vice. There is no doctrine so absurd but texts may be found in support of it, by mutilating verses, and joining discordant parts; by interpreting figurative expressions literally, or making plain language bear a mystic signification; and what man whose daily necessities require all his time, can find leisure to collect or comprehend the whole extent and design of the sacred writings?"

Our author engages also in defence of punning; but we must understand him rightly;—it is by way of variety only. He gives instances of some execrable puns, which we think would cure any one of this vile sin. Yet there are some sprightly remarks on this subject.

'Homer makes Ulysses call himself Noman, that when the giant bewails the loss of his eye, it may appear accidental by his saying, that No man had put it out. Homer and Shakespeare are great authorities, and if their puns are not more frequent, much may be attributed to the nature of a pun, which, like an extempore, loses its force by being written. But while modern criticks ridicule the use of punning, let them remember that the pope holds his supremacy over the church of Rome, from an expression in the 18th verse of the 16th chapter of St. Matthew: "Tu es Petrus, et super hanc Petram ædificabo meam ecclesiam." Which the French render thus: "Tu es Pierre & sur cette Pierre, j'edifierai mon Eglise." Where the allusion to the two words, Peter and a rock, would now be called a pun; for I must explain to the mere English reader, that in most European languages, these two words are expressed by sounds nearly similar, though it does not hold in English; and this gave occasion to a French bigot to declare, "that the English nation must have been predestinated heretics, since their very language would not allow them to understand and acknowledge the origin of that power which the Holy See assumes."

If our author will read No. 122, in the Spectator, he will find that Addison was not guilty of a pun, for the sign was painted

painted only on one ſide at firſt. Numbers 454 and 455, which are alſo accuſed, do not, in the ſtrict meaning of the term, comprehend any puns.

We can extract no more: yet we ought to add, that the Friar's Tale is highly pathetic, and admirably told. It deſerves a place with (no—we mean only pretty near) thoſe of Le Fevre and La Roque, which have carried this kind of compoſition to its utmoſt height. The deſcription of the moon, where there is ſuppoſed to be ſameneſs only, without variety, is very well managed. The epigrams are chiefly puns.

Eſſays on Education. By John Weddell Parſons, A. B. ſmall 8vo. 2s. 6d. ſewed. Cadell.

MR. Parſons, to enforce the advantages of a proper education, begins with a poſition at beſt problematical, and we think doubtful, that the general diſpoſition of a nation is not much or extenſively influenced by the ſpirit or the form of government. We have been accuſtomed to conſider, that the ſpirit and independence of an Engliſhman reſult from his ſuperiority to oppreſſive power, to his power of obtaining a habeas corpus, to the neceſſity of being brought to a trial for any imputed offences; above all, to the right which he feels, in ſeptennial rotation, of chuſing his repreſentatives. Our author will find, if he purſues the ſubject farther, that the national characters of the Turks, the Poles, and the French, are materially and extenſively influenced by their form of government. But as he makes little uſe of this poſition, except as a foundation for the neceſſity of a careful attention to education, which we would readily admit without its aid, we ſhall add no farther remarks on it. In his Eſſay on Education, he recommends public ſchools, with ſome uſeful reſtrictions, particularly with the conſtant aſſiſtance of a monitor in the hours of abſence from ſchool, and of pleaſure. That the ſchool-boy's pleaſures be conſiſtent with morality, is undoubtedly a material object; but one great advantage of a public ſchool is, to give room for the qualities of the mind to expand! and the ſummary juſtice which he receives from his companions is often of real uſe. A mean ſelfiſh diſpoſition is received by them with contempt, an open generous one with regard: they puniſh on the ſpot the petty pilferer, and reward the ſpirited attempt, though it may not be within the ſtricteſt rules of morality. In all our readings, however, we never found the aſpiring ſchool-boy who, at the hazard of his life, would ſcale the walls of a garden or an orchard, attribute his future evil courſes to thoſe attempts. But many of the preſent heroes of the army and navy, many of the moſt reſpectable men, have been to our own knowlege the leaders in theſe prædatory excurſions

curſions. The conſtant attention of a monitor might occaſionally prevent theſe little errors; but it would check that ſpirit which ſhould grow with the boy's ſtrength, and blight thoſe expanding flowers which, in his maturer age, might be conſpicuous to the world, and advantageous to his country. We fear the Amor Scholæ is not tranſmitted from parent to child, or ſo obvious as Mr. Parſons ſuſpects.

His next Eſſay, which contains an anſwer to thoſe who object to a claſſical education, has our full approbation. In the Eſſay on the application of eminent genius, our author regrets that the genius of boys is ſo ſeldom conſulted; or, in reality, that their future deſtination is fixed before their genius can be known. We confeſs, that what is called genius for any profeſſion appears to us to be a fancy, or a predilection; and that to a man of abilities and application, no profeſſion can be very difficult. If lord Mansfield's genius in his youthful years had been conſulted, we might have wanted the greateſt ornament of the law:

How ſweet a poet is in Murray loſt?

For what profeſſion is ſolid application and ſound judgment improper? in what is genius and fancy uſeleſs? In fact, each are uſeful in every profeſſion; and a man of judgment will know how to adapt each to his own. The advice of an ancient was by no means improper: Optimum vitæ genus eligito nam conſuetudo faciet jucundiſſimum. The only thing that at firſt ſight ſeems neceſſary, is to decide, whether a boy has any genius or not. But on this ſubject we will attend to our author.

'Genius is not always ſo obvious, but that in ſome conſtitutions and tempers it may lie concealed, if obſervation is not carried on beyond mere ſchool-learning: claſſical inſtitution is not the touchſtone of all diſpoſitions. It is with difficulty, that ſome boys are dragged through the claſſes of a public ſchool; and yet live to prove that they poſſeſs great intellectual ſtrength and capacity. Many rather ſuffer, than chooſe the ſlow, regular gradations of claſſical inſtruction, and look out for a wider and leſs controled range for mental exerciſe. Much of the knowlege that is preſented to boys in public ſchools, is not the element they would naturally wiſh to be employed in. It is not congenial with their warm imaginations and improvident minds, that neither yet have experienced the want, or perceive the force of moral inſtitutes. The medium is ſtill very proper, perhaps the beſt that can be uſed, for ſtrengthening and dilating the intellectual powers. But minds in general, meaſured by their proficiency and acquirements in claſſical knowlege, will be deemed very unequal to their real and intrinſic worth.'

Yet if attention to the genius is neceſſary, we would, with our author, rather refer the obſervation to the teacher than the

the parent. He has given ſome very excellent leſſons for diſtinguiſhing the different kinds of mind: we only doubt of their application in any extenſive degree, or to any uſeful purpoſe. The author concludes with a propoſal for eſtabliſhing a ſeminary for indigent genius, with which we entirely coincide: we doubt whether genius is ſo common even to fill a very ſmall inſtitution; but this would lead us to examine what genius is, and carry us too far.

Aphoriſms on Man: Tranſlated from the Original Manuſcript of the Rev. John Caſpar Lavater. Small 8vo. 3*s.* Johnſon.

FROM this little work we muſt tranſcribe much, for we can deſcribe it but imperfectly. The private character of Lavater is excellent: he is mild, humble, modeſt, and good; yet his mind is impetuous; his ideas catch a ſudden form, and ſtart into ſublime and often uncommon conceptions. His ſingularities are well known, from his Work on Phyſigonomy, now tranſlating into Engliſh and publiſhing in Numbers. We ſhall firſt ſelect the ſenſible well-written account of theſe Aphoriſms by the editor.

'In the following collection of Aphoriſms, the reader is not to expect a ſet of maxims compiled from the author's own, or by him ſelected from the works of others; but an original, meditated and compoſed in the ſeries here offered during the autumn of 1787, and tranſmitted in the author's own manuſcript to the publiſher.

'Notwithſtanding the rapidity that attended this work, (and the world know that all this author's works are effuſions), it will be found to contain what gives their value to maxims—verdicts of wiſdom on the reports of experience. If ſome are truiſms, let it be conſidered that Solomon and Hippocrates wrote truiſms: if ſome are not new, they are recommended by an air of novelty; if whim ſhould appear to have dictated others, it was the whim of humanity; and what may be deemed raſh, will be found to flow from the fervour of indignant honeſty, or the exultations of benevolence. Acute and perſpicuous, they are not infected by the the cant of ſects, or circumſcribed by local notions, but general as the paſſions and feelings of the race.'

There is little connection in the different aphoriſms, but we ſhall not ſelect at random.

'Who in the ſame given time can produce more than many others, has vigour: who can produce more and better, has talents; who can produce what none elſe can, has genius.

'The acquiſition of will, for one thing excluſively, preſuppoſes entire acquaintance with many others. Search into the progreſs of excluſive will, and you may learn whether it was formed by accident, or power, or both.

'Wiſhes run over in loquacious impotence, will preſſes on laconic energy.

'The

'The more uniform a man's voice, ſtep, manner of converſation, hand-writing—the more quiet, uniform, ſettled, his actions, his character.

'Who is open without levity; generous without waſte; ſecret without craft; humble without meanneſs; bold without inſolence; cautious without anxiety; regular, yet not formal; mild, yet not timid: firm, yet not tyrannical—is made to paſs the ordeal of honour, friendſhip, virtue.'

Again, there is ſomething ſingular, and we think juſt, in the following aphoriſm.

'Take from Luther his roughneſs and fiery courage; from Calvin his hectic obſtinacy; from Eraſmus his timid prudence; hypocriſy and fanaticiſm from Cromwell; from Henry IV. his ſanguine character; myſticiſm from Fenelon; from Hume his all-unhinging wit; love of paradox and brooding ſuſpicion from Rouſſeau; naiveté and elegance of knavery from Voltaire; from Milton the extravagance of his all-perſonifying fancy; from Raffaelle his dryneſs and nearly hard preciſion; and from Rubens his ſupernatural luxury of colours:—deduct this oppreſſive exuberance from each; rectify them according to your own taſte—what will be the reſult? your own correct, pretty, flat, uſeful—for me, to be ſure, quite convenient vulgarity. And why this amongſt maxims of humanity? that you may learn to know this exuberance, this leven, of each great character, and its effects on contemporaries and poſterity—that you may know where d, e, f, is, there muſt be a, b, c: he alone has knowlege of man, who knows the ferment that raiſes each character, and makes it that which it ſhall be, and ſomething more or leſs than it ſhall be.'

Once more:

'The infinitely little conſtitutes the infinite difference in works of art, and in the degrees of morals and religion; the greater the rapidity, preciſion, acuteneſs, with which this is obſerved and determined, the more authentic, the greater the obſerver.

'If you are deſtitute of ſentiment, principle, genius, and inſtruction, you may be ſuppoſed unfit for ſcience and for virtue: but, if without genius you pretend to excel; if without ſentiment you affect to think yourſelf ſuperior to eſtabliſhed principle; know that you are as much between fool and knave as you are between right and left.

'Each heart is a world of nations, claſſes, and individuals; full of friendſhips, enmities, indifferences; full of being and decay, of life and death; the paſt, the preſent, and the future; the ſprings of health and engines of diſeaſe: here joy and grief, hope and fear, love and hate, fluctuate and toſs the ſullen and the gay, the hero and the coward, the giant and the dwarf, deformity and beauty, on ever reſtleſs waves. You find all within yourſelf, that you find without: the number and character of your friends within bears an exact reſemblance to your external ones; and your nternal enemies are juſt as many, as inveterate, as irreconcilable,

concilable, as thoſe without: the world that ſurrounds you is the magic glaſs of the world, and of its forms within you; the brighter you are yourſelf, ſo much brighter are your friends, ſo much more polluted your enemies. Be aſſured then, that to know yourſelf perfectly you have only to ſet down a true ſtatement of thoſe that ever loved or hated you.'

Many of theſe are admirable; but were we to tranſcribe as many more, we ſhould ſtill leave a reliſh for the reſt: at once, then, we refer the reader to the work. It is a ſhort one, and if he does not wiſh to read it again and again, as we have done, it will take little time from his buſineſs or his pleaſure. We ought to warn him that it is very ſeductive.

Characteriſtic Anecdotes, and Miſcellaneous Authentic Papers, tending to illuſtrate the Character of Frederic II. late King of Pruſſia. With explanatory Notes and Obſervations. By B. H. Latrobe. 8*vo.* 6*s. in Boards.* Stockdale.

IN our laſt volume we gave a pretty extenſive account of a tranſlation from the German, by M. Winzer, relating to the great Frederic. The work before us ſeems to be extracted from the copious collection which furniſhed M. Winzer's volumes. Many of the anecdotes are the ſame; but there are ſome letters, different ſtate-papers, and other anecdotes, which the former tranſlator thought perhaps of leſs importance. If we examine the comparative merits of the tranſlations, where the objects of the collector's attention were the ſame, we muſt give the preference to M. Latrobe. His language is more free, his words better choſen, and he preſerves the ſpirit of the German repartees with more force. Yet, as much of the two works are different, they can ſcarcely be conſidered as interfering with each other.

In the preface there are ſome judicious remarks on the conduct of Frederic, and the German conſtitution. The enthuſiaſm for liberty in Germany, where civil liberty is at a low ebb, may appear ſurpriſing; but we muſt extract our author's explanation of it.

'In ſome of the many ſovereignties of the large tract of country, which goes by the common name of Germany, a traveller will think the expreſſion means (if it means any thing) the liberty of the prince to do with his ſubjects what he pleaſes; to ſell them as ſoldiers to a foreign power, or to heap taxes upon them, almoſt above their abilities to bear, in order to ſupport an inelegant extravagance. In other ſtates, he will perhaps imagine, that it ſignifies a degree of liberty enjoyed by the nobles, and exerciſed upon a lower order of beings, called citizens and peaſants; a kind of liberty leſs injurious to the ſtate than the former, as a mild exerciſe of it is neceſſary to the ſupport of thoſe, in whoſe hands it

is

is lodged. In a few Imperial cities, he will indeed find individuals enjoy a degree of conſequence and freedom, which has raiſed Hamburg, Lübeck, Frankfurt on the Main, Augſburg, and Nurnburg, to a ſtate of opulence which neither the ſituation of the towns, nor the number of their inhabitants would otherwiſe have entitled them to. But in moſt of the reſt, factious magiſtrates, or powerful neighbours, will be found to have gone a great way towards rendering their liberty merely nominal; and only in a few villages in Thuringia, and ſome other parts of the country, he may meet with an inconſiderable claſs of people, called free peaſants of the empire (freie reichſbauern) who are tributary to no lord, and whom their ſmall number, and their impotence, protects from the notice, or the rapacity of the neighbouring princes.

'In aſſerting the unlimited power exerciſed by the Pruſſian monarch, I was naturally obliged to anſwer an objection which might have ariſen from the frequent uſe of the word German liberty, the true meaning of which is, I believe, often miſtaken by the writers of that country.

'German liberty is a term merely relating to the inherent and unalienable rights and privileges of the conſtituent members or ſtates of the empire, in oppoſition to the power and prerogative of the emperor. Every ſtate of the empire from the pooreſt count, to the moſt powerful elector, is united in this one common intereſt, and the diet at Regenſburgh (Ratiſbon) compoſed of the deputies of all the ſtates, may be looked upon as the guardian of their rights.

'The ſupreme Aulic council at Wetzlar, ought to be equally attentive to their preſervation, but as the authority of its members depends upon, and dies with the reigning emperor, its deciſions cannot be ſuppoſed to be entirely free from bias to the other ſide, and the character in which it is moſt conſpicuous, is that of the ſupreme court of appeal from every other authority in the empire.'

As we have given a ſufficient ſpecimen of Frederic's remarks and of his wit, we ſhall conclude our article with one of his letters of gallantry; but it is addreſſed to a lady much older than himſelf, viz. Madam de Camas, formerly governeſs of the houſhold, in the family of his mother.

'I herewith ſend you a trifle that may now and then remind you of your friend. You may uſe the box either for rouge, or for pa'ches, for ſnuff, or for ſweetmeats, or, if you pleaſe, for ills. But whatever uſe you put it too, I wiſh you may never ee the dog, that ſymbol of fidelity, painted upon the lid, without remembering the inviolable attachment of one, whoſe fidelity far exceeds that of the moſt faithful of theſe animals, and whoſe friendſhip has nothing of the fragile quality of the ſubſtance of which the box is made.

'I have here ordered china for every body; for Schönhauſen, for my ſiſter-in-law: in ſhort, I am rich in nothing but in this

brittle

brittle ware, and I hope it will be as acceptable to those I shall send it to, as ready money. We are, my dear mama, a pack of poor devils, worth nothing in the world but honour, china, and our swords.

'Adieu my dear good mama. If please God I see you again face to face, I shall then have the pleasure to repeat what I have written, though at any rate, I shall very imperfectly express the affection and respect my heart feels for you. I am, &c.'

Julia de Grammont. By the Right Honourable Lady ******. *2 Vols. small 8vo.* 6s. White *and* Son.

Literature is a republic, where an occasional despot is soon dethroned, and where nobility is unknown. Lady **** will receive no favour from her title, and, as we have lately observed, an Amazon in the field receives only those attentions, which the laws of war allow, if contest should ensue. In the present instance, however, we hold the olive, and should pass her in respectful silence, if her work neither excited praise nor blame. But we think she deserves no little commendations. The story is conducted with great skill; intricately entangled, without too much perplexity; and artfully unravelled, without improbability. The language is generally elegant, the characters well drawn, and the situations interesting and affecting. Julia de Grammont will not bear a comparison with some of our late novels: it is a French story, and not related with the same minuteness; the windings of the heart are not developed with equal anxiety; but in its own class it must attain a considerable rank.

If we found it sometimes exceptionable, it was from too great a profusion of ornamental description; where 'description holds the place of sense.' In a few instances, our author's imagination has sometimes carried her too far, and given a puerile air to those parts where the judgment wished for an appeal, where the mind required more solid reflection. In the following passage, it is defensible on account of the contrast.—Augustus and Julia feel a mutual passion; but Julia is destined to a convent, and her doom is only changed, on condition she receives the hand which her father offers. That hand, she finds, when too late, is Augustus' father's. The marquis is, however, generous, benevolent, and affectionate: though these qualities soften the rigour of Julia's fate, they do not diminish the regret of her former lover. Their meeting is the subject of the following extract, where the author's pathetic and descriptive powers are united.

'The chevalier had not been named; a circumstance which confirmed madam de Soissons in her hopes that he was no longer a guest at Senanges. This flattering conjecture in some measure restored her serenity: they were shown into the library, and presented with refreshments, which were acceptable after a journey immoderately hot. The marquis began to amuse himself by looking over some capital drawings which were

ſpread on a table: Madame de Tourville was examining a full length picture of the counteſs, which had lately been placed in this apartment; while the marchioneſs looked fearfully round the room to ſee if ſhe could diſcover any traces of Auguſtus. She rejoiced at diſcerning none; and, advancing towards a glaſs door, which was thrown open to admit the fragrance of the various flowers which luxuriantly ſurrounded it, ſhe was tempted to ſtray upon the verdant lawn.—All was calm; the air breathed odoriferous gales; her feet, with involuntary motion, led her to a walk ſhe had often trod with her loved Soiſſons; the meeting beech had formed a natural canopy above; the blooming roſe and twining woodbine, in wild profuſion, bent their branches to ſcatter at her feet their mingled ſweets.

'As ſhe entered the grove ſhe caſt her eyes towards the apartment which had once contained the chevalier. The windows were open, and the luſtring curtains gently waved; ſhe heaved a ſigh, and proceeded.

'The plaintive Philomela had begun her evening melody—with ſlow and penſive air the beauteous Julia moved—each ſeat, each ſhrub, recalled a dear idea to her mind! She viewed, with painful pleaſure, every memento of her former love. Here glowed the amaranthus, there bluſhed the gay carnation, whoſe opening ſweets and budding infancy ſhe had watched and tended in their early ſpring.

'Wrapt in this ſad but ſoothing contemplation, ſhe advanced, till a proſtrate bench, which ſome boiſterous ſummer ſtorm had overſet, obſtructed the paſſage. An opening path appearing through the trees, ſhe followed it inſenſibly; its winding turns led imperceptibly up an eaſy aſcent; and ſhe was rouſed from her reverie, by finding herſelf conducted to the mauſoleum. This edifice, though ſhe had often paſſed, ſhe never yet had entered: it was accuſtomed to be kept conſtantly ſhut—the door now ſtood a-jar; and, though the gloom of the ſurrounding evergreens caſt a ſolemn ſhade, and inſpired Julia with a ſecret terror, yet ſhe felt herſelf impelled to approach the drear abode. The noiſe ſhe made on entering alarmed her; the door grated on its ruſty hinges; and, echoing through the vaulted arches, diſturbed that awful ſtillneſs which increaſed the ſepulchral horrors of this region of mortality!

'The marchioneſs trembled as ſhe fearfully ſurveyed the dome, whoſe monumental niches contained the departed anceſtry of Senanges. She had ſcarcely power to return towards the door, with an intent to quit it, when the ſolemn tones of an organ, from the adjoining chapel, ſtruck her ear;—they ceaſed; ſhe again made an effort to depart: but her terrors were yet heightened by the ſlow tread of advancing ſteps. She became immoveable; ſhe uttered a faint ſcream;—a form appeared—it perceived her fears—it flew to ſupport her in its arms—it ſunk with her on the marble pavement.'

It was Auguſtus! But we will not, by the leaſt alluſion to the event, diminiſh the pleaſure of the reader of the whole.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued, from Vol. LXV. p. 560.)

THE firſt uſe which we make of our extended limits muſt be to extend our Foreign Intelligence into regions, which we before only looked at with a tranſient glance. We mean occaſionally to ſurvey the progreſs of our neighbours in polite literature, in which we include the moſt conſiderable claſſical works, performances of taſte and criticiſm. As, on this line, out chief ſubject will be to announce new publications, with a ſhort account of their object and tendency, this addition will not draw us often from our more ſcientific works, or detain us long.

Homer, the earlieſt and firſt of poets, retains all the admiration of more than twenty ſucceeding centuries. A French and an Italian tranſlation have lately appeared. The three firſt volumes of M. Bitaube's tranſlation of the Iliad, have already reached the third edition. In their progreſs, they appear to have been greatly amended. The tranſlator has again compared his work with the original, in ſome inſtances corrected his language, rejected ſome ſuperfluous notes, and added other explanations. The reſt of the Iliad and the Odyſſey will be publiſhed in twelve volumes, at two livres each (about 2od.) ſewed. The fire of Homer is undoubtedly chilled in the French language; yet in the ſpecimens which we have had occaſion to ſee, we found no little merit in the execution, and think it the beſt tranſlation which France has yet received. The work is preceded by ſome reflections on Homer, and on the tranſlation of the poets. Of the Italian tranſlation of the Iliad, the firſt twelve books are only publiſhed in quarto at Turin. The tranſlator is Dr. Giacinto Ceruti, of the univerſity of Turin. The tranſlation is ſaid to be faithful, elegant, and free; the verſification harmonious. M. Schlegel's Commentary on the Geography of Homer has been lately publiſhed at Hanover. It obtained the firſt prize on that ſubject from the univerſity of Gottingen, and is an elegant and judicious tract. M. Schlichthorſt's Diſſertation, which gained the ſecond prize, has alſo appeared; but we have not been able to ſee it. In the former work, the arrangement is clear, and the deſcription very intelligible. The author advances from the coaſts of Greece to the internal parts; from thence he proceeds to Aſia, and deſcribes Troy, with the adjacent country. He afterwards examines the more ſouthern nations, the Æthiopians, the Pigmies, &c. A map would greatly facilitate our comprehenſion in purſuing his deſcriptions. He has promiſed one, but we cannot find that it has yet appeared.

M. Beck's edition of Plutarch de Placitis Philoſophorum is a very valuable one. The publiſher, M. Breitkopf of Leipſic,

deſigns to print ſome of the Greek authors with corrections, and various readings, and has employed M. Beck, profeſſor of the Greek and Latin languages, in this undertaking. The ſpecimen is a very good one, and the choice of this work, which has been uſually attributed to Plutarch, for the firſt publication, is owing to its being a good text for explaining the general ſentiments of philoſophers. We may add, that it has been ſeldom publiſhed alone, and that it furniſhes ample matter for judicious criticiſm. In the dedication the editor gives his opinion on the character, the merit, and the author of this work. M. Beck thinks, with profeſſor Meiner, that it is a very imperfect compilation; but he thinks that it is, in ſome reſpects at leaſt, the work of Plutarch. It is attributed to him by Theodoret, Cyril of Alexandria, and Euſebius, which only prove that it is not poſterior to the fifth century, and was then ſuppoſed to be his. It is probably an extract from a larger work: it is printed very correctly, but is thought by ſome that the type is ſmall and faint. There are ſome happy emendations; but the text is ſtill very obſcure.

When we ſpeak of Plutarch, we muſt not omit M. Wyttenbach's promiſed edition of his whole works, a promiſe which fifteen years delay would have led us to ſuppoſe was forgotten, if it had not been lately renewed, by his publiſhing a deſcription, and a ſpecimen of his work. We find that, in this interval, he has not been idle: many manuſcripts have been collated, corrupted words reſtored, and defects ſupplied. The text and the verſion are printed on the ſame page: under the former are the various readings and the emendations; and, under the latter, the notes. In this way the page is crowded and, we think, deformed, while every advantage might have been obtained by printing the verſion on the oppoſite page, and adding the emendations and variations in the margins of each. The paper and the printing, however, in the ſpecimen before us, are very good. The verſion is that of Xylander, much improved. Four very copious and uſeful Indices are to be ſubjoined.

Hellanicus of Leſbos was a Greek hiſtorian, who was born before Herodotus, and died after him. M. Sturz, in the courſe of laſt year, publiſhed his fragments, collected from different authors, with emendations and illuſtrations. To this edition he prefixed a commentary, containing ſome account of the age, life, and writings of his author. The fragments are printed in large octavo, and contain, in 156 pages, 145 articles collected uncommon aſſiduity.

M. Bordel has publiſhed at Lauſanne, an Introduction to the reading the Odes of Pindar. For this taſk he appears well qualified, if a qualification is to be drawn from zeal, an ardent admiration, an enthuſiaſm, and a wildneſs bordering on obſcurity. The abbé Maſſieu is tranſlating Lucian with ſome ſucceſs; the fourth, fifth, and ſixth volumes are lately publiſhed; they

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are in a ſtyle more eaſy than the verſion of D'Ablancour, but not more correct.

An edition of much more importance we have received from the ſplendid preſs of Parma; it contains the two chapters of the Moral Characters of Theophraſtus, not before publiſhed. The beauty of the Parma editions we have already noticed in one of our earlieſt accounts of Foreign Literature. Inſtead of again enlarging on it, we ſhall mention the decoration of the frontiſpiece. On the top, is the head of the old Greek philoſopher, engraved from the figure of a marble bath, lately diſcovered in the ruins of the retreat of the Piſos. The editor is J. C. Amaduzzi, and the work is printed from a manuſcript of the eleventh century, preſerved in the Vatican, with a preface, a Latin verſion, and notes. The preface is addreſſed to M. Chardon de la Rochette, who is to our editor what Philocles was to Theophraſtus. In this letter, ſig. Amaduzzi gives a hiſtory of the gradually accumulating works of Theophraſtus, and corrects ſome errors which Fabricius fell into, in his Bibliotheca Græca, as well as thoſe of Fiſcher, in his very excellent preface to the laſt edition of Theophraſtus, publiſhed at Cobourg in 1773. He gives ſome account of a very early verſion of the twenty-three firſt chapters in Italian (1620), and the complete tranſlation of Leonardo del Riccio in 1763, with explanations of the various readings, drawn from the four Florentine manuſcripts, and a great number of learned notes. He deſcribes particularly the Codex Bombicinus, where the preſent manuſcript was found, with the particulars relating to two other manuſcripts, the one of the Vatican, the other in the library of Barberini, which he has examined for the purpoſe of procuring various readings. He has printed the text with great accuracy, and the tranſlation is elegantly adapted to it. The notes are not too numerous, nor too pedantic. It is remarkable that Caſaubon and Ceba thought ſome paſſages of the eleventh book appeared unconnected with the reſt, and they have endeavoured to reconcile them by ſome very ſpecious remarks. Theſe doubtful paſſages really belong to the laſt of theſe newly publiſhed books, the thirtieth, and are very properly connected with their ſubjects. A fragment of the tenth book of Theophraſtus on plants, has been lately diſcovered in the Medicean Laurenziani library, which has been publiſhed by Bandini; ſo that this age is fortunate for the credit of the philoſopher, whoſe works and whoſe buſt have been rendered better known. The titles of theſe chapters are Περι φιλοπονηριας, De malorum amicitia, and Περι αισχρο-κερδειας, De turpi lucro. We are ſorry that we cannot give a fuller account of this edition, which is not leſs valuable for its erudition than for its beauty; but we have already exceeded the proper limits of a ſketch of this kind.

Some modern works relating to the Grecians, though of inferior value, muſt be ſhortly noticed. The firſt is Letters to M. Bailly on the Primitive Hiſtory of Greece, in a large volume

octavo, of four hundred and forty-eight pages, by M. Rabaut. The author is a pupil, and an admirer of M. Bailly and M. Court de Gebelin. He is an alchemiſt, who puts gold into the crucible and then finds it there: he forms a mythology for the Greeks, and then diſcovers in it every excellence which he wiſhes it to poſſeſs. The voyage of the Argonauts, for inſtance, is a ſyſtem of aſtronomy and geography: Circaſſia is derived from Circe; with various other abſurdities which we need not detail. Another work of equal merit, is an Eſſay on the Religion of the Ancient Greeks, publiſhed at Lauſanne in two volumes octavo. The author repreſents it as a ſyſtem of pure morality, diſguiſed by fable; but the author knows nothing of the ancient Greeks: he has picked up the reveries of ſome French compilers.

In the claſs of Greek literature, we muſt mention the tranſlation of Virgil's Georgics into Greek hexameters, and illuſtrated with a continued commentary. The tranſlator is M. Eugene de Bulgaris, at firſt rector of the college of the monaſtery of mount Athos, and then principal profeſſor of the ſciences in the great patriarchal ſchool of Conſtantinople. His work is ſuperbly printed at the expence of prince Potemkin, to whom it is dedicated, as the cultivator and zealous patron of Greek poetry. It is propheſied, in elegant lines, that this great politician will renew the age of the ancient colonies of Miletus, which will be eſtabliſhed in Tauris, by attracting the Greeks of every country.

In Latin literature, our account is not equally rich. The firſt is a chronological work, publiſhed in two volumes quarto at Venice. It contains the older chronicles of the Latin writers, corrected by the aſſiſtance of manuſcripts, collated with the beſt editions, and illuſtrated with notes. Euſebius's Chronicle, tranſlated from the Greek by Hieronymus, is prefixed: it is a work of infinite labour and vaſt expence. The editor, D. Roucaillius, is a literary pioneer: he clears the way for the hiſtorian, and is of the greateſt uſe, though labours of this kind are ſeldom properly valued, or ſuitably rewarded. The old chronicles are accompanied by a liſt, with explanations of the conſuls and emperors, by which means a regular and correct chronology may be eſtabliſhed from the commencement of the world to the eighth age of the church. Many of theſe chronicles have never yet been publiſhed, and it was neceſſary to ſeek them in the duſt of large libraries. They have been tranſcribed carefully, and collated attentively with thoſe which were already publiſhed; and the editor, whoſe object it was to correct and explain many eſſential points of hiſtory, chronology, and philology, has fulfilled his taſk very properly. The firſt volume, after an extenſive preface, which deſcribes every chronicle particularly, gives that of Euſebius entire; and it is followed by the continuation of St. Jerom, and the chronicle by St. Proſpero of Acquitaine, entire: three others are added under

the name of the ſame ſaint. The ſecond volume commences by the chronicle of Idazius, and his conſular Faſti: it is followed by two anonymous chronicles, which the cardinal prince of Garampi tranſcribed from the copy in the imperial library at Vienna with ſingular care, and communicated to the author. The tenth chronicle is that of Aurelius Caſſiodorus, followed by two liſts of Roman emperors; the firſt taken from a manuſcript in the Imperial library; the other from a manuſcript of the Vatican. The abridged chronicle publiſhed by the learned monk Theodoric Ruinat, next occurs; then that of Marcellinus and of Victor, of Thonon. The three laſt are thoſe of Marius of Avenche; of Iſidore of Seville, and the venerable Bede. At the end is a complete liſt of conſuls and emperors, from their origin to the year 703 of the Chriſtian æra, where the above mentioned chronicles end. This liſt is taken from father Stampa and many other learned chronologiſts.

A work of greater elegance, and to the philologiſt of more entertainment, has lately appeared at Turin, entitled Germani & Marcellæ æra Sepulchralis Commentariis illuſtrata. The author is Joſephus Vernazza, member of many learned ſocieties. Its ſubject is an intereſting inſcription found in 177-, on the left of the Tanaro, near the city of Alba. The inſcription is a very elegant one, and diſplays the pure Latinity which ſtill flouriſhed in the time of Caligula. What fixes it to the period of that emperor is, that Caius Cornelius Germanicus, who erected this monument to Valeria Marcella his wife, was judge of the fifth decurium, which title is added to his others; and this office was eſtabliſhed by Caligula. The explanation is illuſtrated with great knowlege, and in very elegant language. The author examines various other monuments found in that country, which are connected with the monument of Marcella, and they contribute to explain many of the particulars relating to her family, and that of Valeria. This is not the only work of ſig. Giuſeppe Vernazza; he has publiſhed the inſcriptions found at Alba, which exiſted about the year 1450, deſcribed by Berardenco: theſe are forty-three in number, and he has added thirty-nine others. Theſe two ſets form the work entitled 'Romanorum literata Monumenta Albæ Pompeiæ civitatem, & agrum illuſtrantia.' It is printed magnificently; each inſcription fills a page; and twenty-one pages of notes are ſubjoined. Fifty copies were only printed, as preſents.

A remarkable remain of antiquity was diſcovered at a ſmall diſtance only from Chiuſi in the territory of Cortona. It is a bas relief in ivory, in the form of a medal, but was more probably an ornament on ſome building, ſince the reverſe ſeems never to have had any inſcription or characters. The figure is that of a man advanced in age: he has a ſquare beard, and a helmet on his head. The field of the medal is diſtinguiſhed by a word in Etruſcan characters, which M. Coltellini, a learned

advocate, interprets PURSNA. He conſiders it as formed by two words, Lar Porſena; and conſequently concludes it to be a medal of Porſena, though with little foundation.

The catalogue of a collection of ancient medals, made by the counteſs dowager of Bentinck, has been lately publiſhed in Holland. This lady's attainments in numiſmatic knowlege are highly ſpoken of, and the arrangement, ſaid to be her own, is a very excellent one. The collection contains not only a ſeries of the medals of the Roman emperors, but of the Grecian cities, of people and kings, whoſe figures and legends ſeem not a little embarraſſing. The uniques and the rareſt medals are engraved; on the doubtful ones the counteſs keeps all her diſcernment awake, and is nothing leſs than credulous. The firſt volume contains the Grecian and other royal medals. In this ſeries there is a beautiful ſet of Macedonian coins, a Moſtis, a Cadmus of Thebes, a Lycurgus of Sparta, a Minos of Crete, Indutiomarus of Treves, Orgetorix and Donnus of Gaul, the kings of Aſia Minor, three queens of Egypt, and three of Palmyra. In this arrangement, the counteſs has followed Pelletier, and we ſometimes ſee ſhe has looked at Haym. Among the rarer medals, there are thoſe of many empreſſes, and the greater number of the Thirty Tyrants.—The ſecond volume contains the medals of the emperors, in ſilver, with the medals of nations and cities. Among the laſt, we find the rareſt coins; the order is geographical. We perceive in this collection the medals of Spain, France, Italy, Greece, Aſia, Africa, and the iſlands, which afford a great foundation for obſervations. We are promiſed a conſiderable ſupplement of the coins of cities, with other curious antiquities, and many plates to be engraved by Weiſsbrod, the artiſt who has enriched theſe volumes with his deſigns. The catalogue is ſuperbly printed in large quarto at the counteſs's expence, and both volumes contain 1122 pages.

Before we leave the medals, we may mention M. Goetſens' deſcription of nineteen very rare gold and ſilver medals, in part unknown. They are ſaid to be very curious; but as we have not ſeen the work, which is in quarto, in German, we cannot give a more particular account of it.

Among the philological diſquiſitions which tend to illuſtrate the remains of antiquity, we may offer a ſhort account of a diſſertation on Egyptian architecture. It is printed at the Parma preſs in quarto; but its appearance conſtitutes its chief merit: the author is a warm admirer of the Egyptians, and without having been on the ſpot, endeavours to correct the miſtaken opinions which have prevailed on the ſubject. This correction is drawn from the various, and often contradictory accounts of travellers, from which, like the literary alchemiſt mentioned above, he has drawn what he had previouſly reſolved ſhould be there. The work is divided into five chapters, though, in reality, it contains but three ſubjects.—A general idea of Egyp-

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tian architecture; 2dly, a particular idea of it; and 3dly, a parallel between it and the Grecian architecture. There is a vaſt diſplay of erudition in this work; and in his parallel, the author gives a very particular, almoſt an enthuſiaſtic, account of the happy ſtate of the Egyptians. In the laſt chapter, he examines the origin of their architecture, and whether it was previous to Solomon's building the temple of Jeruſalem. He is, however, more of an hiſtorian than an architect, and has quoted more paſſages than he has diſplayed knowlege. When he comes to the end of his parallel, he concludes in the following words: 'The Egyptian architecture is ſuperior to the Grecian, by the antiquity, ſolidity, extent, and magnificence of the public buildings. Egypt alſo ſhews us Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian capitals, raiſed on columns exquiſitely proportioned, many years before Greece thought of the ſubject. Beſides, the Egyptian architecture is raiſed yet higher in our opinions, when we conſider the impreſſion of magnificence, majeſty, and ſtrength, which it made on the minds of its obſervers. The Greeks were taught by Egypt to give to this art the grace, elegance, and harmony of which it is ſuſceptible. It is from this country that they eſtabliſhed the laws of proportion, acquired an exquiſite taſte in ornaments, and learned to give a lightneſs and delicacy to every part. Yet it muſt be owned, that the Grecian works offered at firſt a freedom and fecundity, which is not always the conſequence of imitation.' This is ſaying much, but it may be aſked how much the author has proved? Literally nothing.

To fill up this philological ſketch, we ſhall ſhortly mention a few works of the oriental kind; for, deſcending in the ages of literature, it is of importance to examine the language of thoſe who kept alive the ſpark of ſcience, though they did not raiſe the flame. Some of the works are, however, of higher importance, and we muſt not deſpiſe even well-digeſted rudiments. Father Raffello Mori, profeſſor of languages in the ſeminary of Florence, has publiſhed in Italian a Hebrew grammar for the uſe of that ſeminary; he treats of the manner of reading, the parts of ſpeech, verbs, ſyntax, and poetry. We cannot find any very numerous advantages in his obſervations or his method; yet if it facilitates the knowlege of Hebrew, as it is ſuppoſed to do, no little utility may be derived from it.

It is of more importance to mention the firſt part of a work entitled 'Inſtitutiones Linguarum Orientalium, Hebræ, Chaldaicæ, Syriacæ, & Arabicæ,' by Innocentius Faſsler. As it has been remarked, that a collection of rules alone, of which grammars chiefly conſiſt, diſguſts by its dryneſs, the author, who is profeſſor of oriental languages at Breſlaw, has placed at the head of his work an hiſtorical introduction, filled with reflections adapted to the underſtanding of pupils, and proper for rendering their ſtudies more intereſting. In the Hebrew

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grammar, he has chiefly followed Meſſ. Michaelis and Pieiffer.

M. Wahl's Magazine of Ancient Literature, publiſhed in octavo at Caſſel, deſerves ſome notice, as an oriental work, though it is in ſome meaſure a miſcellaneous one. It is intended to replace the vacancy left by the diſcontinuation of the Repertorium fur Bibliſche und Morgenlaendiſche literatur. It commences with three poems of Myron, and the firſt Idyllium of Theocritus, in German verſe; but the moſt important part is the Arabic. The firſt article of this kind is an attempt to decypher many Arabian words in the liſt of Forſkâl. Eichorn has already explained ſeveral of theſe. The liſt is ſtill farther augmented by many Arabian ſynonyms, drawn from the Arabic of Niebuhr, and the Flora and Fauna of Forſkâl; by poems, among which is one in the praiſe of Mahomet; and by ſome collections of Hebrew and Perſian literature, ſuch as Obſervations on the Supplement of Michaelis to the Hebrew Dictionary, and an Apology for the Perſian Language. Our author promiſes a Perſian Grammar, and a Hiſtory of the Oriental Languages.

The catalogue of oriental manuſcripts in the library of Nani, is publiſhed at Padua in ſmall folio. It conſiſts of 24 pages and four plates. It contains a deſcription of fifty manuſcripts, beſides which a Syriac edition of the Pſalter is mentioned, with an Arabian verſion, printed at Kuſhaia in 1585, in the monaſtery of St. Anthony, on mount Lebanon. This muſt be older than any edition yet known, and it is ſuſpected that there is ſome error in the figures, or that the edition of 1610 was printed from it. The manuſcript marked 34 is an Arabian calendar, very curious in its œconomical part, relating to Egypt. For inſtance, on the ſixth of April, the rains of that month commence; on the ſeventh the ſowing of the ſmaller grains is finiſhed; on the eighteenth the ſowing of the larger grains; on the twenty-fourth the root of henna is ſown; on the twelfth of May the manna falls; on the twenty-eighth rice is ſown; on the twenty-ninth the firſt ſigns of the inundation of the Nile appear. N° 48 is a book entitled Hortus Rerum Mirabilium Romæ, printed at Rome, ex Typographia Dominici Baſæ, 1585. It has the merit of a manuſcript, ſince it is not yet known, for it is different from the work preſerved in the Medicean library, N° 119, with the ſame date and title. This is in Arabic, with a tranſlation written between the lines, in quarto. The ſecond chapter contains a deſcription of fifty Cuthic medals, among which are many not yet known. M. Aſſemanni, the compiler of this catalogue, has great merit; but it is obſcured by the engraver, who has given plates very different from what the author deſcribes: at leaſt it is not eaſy to read the legends which he mentions on the coin which is repreſented.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Hiſtoire Naturelle des Mineraux, par M. le Comte de Buffon. 8 *Tom.* 12*mo.* Paris.

AS we have not yet received our promiſed account of this very able and reſpectable philoſopher, we ſhall no longer delay our examination of his laſt work. The count de Buffon is well known as a naturaliſt; and it would be uſeleſs to mention the merits of his Zoology, his Natural Hiſtory of Birds, or of his extenſive knowlege of phyſics in general. His Mineral Syſtem has been little noticed in this country. We now take it up at a diſtance from its commencement, but not far diſtant from its completion, when it could be with propriety our object. Yet the time employed in the publication has rendered the firſt volumes old, and we have heſitated much, whether we ſhould conſider it entire, or take a comprehenſive view of the whole, without engaging in any particular details. After ſome reflection, we think it proper to give an analyſis of our author's ſyſtem, and, if poſſible, we ſhall afterwards return to it, and, by abridging his obſervations on one ſubject, give a more adequate idea of his manner, than by ſtepping curſorily over a variety of articles: the firſt is our object at this time. In a future Number we hope to reſume the work; but if that is found to be impracticable, our readers will not be without ſome knowlege of the fanciful ſyſtem of this truly well-informed philoſopher.

Few are ignorant, that M. de Buffon ſuppoſes the planets, and, among the reſt, our earth, to be particles ſtruck off from the ſun, heated in that immenſe fire to an intenſity which no figures can deſcribe, and no imagination comprehend. This burning world only by degrees acquires ſolidity, and by degrees, ſtill more ſlow, is adapted for the habitation of living creatures. Our author's mineral ſyſtem explains this proceſs from the ſtores which mineralogy offers; and it is one of the moſt ſublime, the moſt ſplendid exertions of an ingenious, perhaps an excentric mind.

The heat that vitrified and diſſolved the ſolid parts, he ſuppoſes, muſt evaporate the volatile ones, which would ſurround the globe at a height proportional to their ſpecific gravities and their volatilities. The fixed ſubſtances, which have been vitrified, our author calls primitive glaſſes, becauſe all the other vitreous matters are actually compoſed of theſe or their remains, when divided. The quartz is the firſt and moſt ſimple of theſe natural glaſſes. The jaſper is the ſecond, and is ſuppoſed to differ from the former only in being impregnated with metallic vapours, which have rendered it opaque, while the quartz is ſemi-tranſparent. Both are very refractory in the fire. The third primitive glaſs, according to our author, is the feldt ſpar; the fourth is ſchorl, which are both fuſible; and the fifth is the mica, which holds a middle rank between the two refractory and the two fuſible glaſſes. It is ſuppoſed to proceed from the

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exfoliation of each, and conſequently to participate of their different qualities. Strictly ſpeaking, therefore, the primitive glaſſes are but three, viz. quartz, feldt ſpar, and ſchorl; but M. de Buffon does not adhere to this reduction, becauſe it chiefly relates to the original formation of theſe glaſſes, whoſe primitive differences we are unacquainted with, that is the cauſes of greater or leſs fuſibility. The only difference which we can perceive is, that the ſubſtance of quartz and jaſper is more ſimple than that of feldt ſpar and ſchorl, becauſe we know, from experience, that the ſimpleſt matters are moſt refractory.

The different mixtures of theſe natural vitrifications, it is ſuppoſed, are made at a period ſubſequent to the fuſion, and during the time that they are heated, in conſequence of the continued action of the fire; and the ſubſtances reſulting from this mixture are repreſented by the rocks of two or more ſubſtances, the porphyries, the ophites, and the granites; in the formation of which water, he thinks, has had no ſhare.

When the heat of the globe diminiſhed, and the earth was ſufficiently cooled to receive water, and other volatile ſubſtances, without throwing them back again in vapour, the metals ſublimed by the force of heat, the other volatile bodies, and at laſt water, fell ſucceſſively, and eſtabliſhed themſelves on the ſurface, in the cliffs, and cavities of the globe. Iron, which requires the greateſt heat to fuſe, is ſuppoſed to have found the firſt place, and to have mixed with the vitreous rock, while it was yet in part liquid. Copper, ſilver, and gold, which require, in gradation, leſs heat, aſſumed their places in the clefts of the quartz which had been conſolidated. Tin, lead, and the other demi-metals, which are eaſily calcined, took their ſtations in the forms of calces, and were converted, by the medium of water, into pyritous minerals.

When the globe grew cooler, the chaos diſappeared; the air was cleared, and after the ſubſtances we have mentioned had ſubſided, it aſſumed its proper form. The air then probably retained, and yet retains, a certain quantity of fire; in this ſtate we call it inflammable air: M. de Buffon ſuppoſes it to be only fire fixed in the ſubſtance of the air. This air, however, impregnated with fire, when mixed with water, formed the aerial acid, which *acted on the vitreous ſubſtances, and produced the vitriolic acid:* after the origin of ſhells, and other organized bodies, either of ſea or land, it produced, by a ſimilar action, the nitrous and the muriatic acids. The waters elevated, at firſt, about 1500 toiſes (nearly two miles) above the level of the preſent ſeas, covered the whole world, except the higheſt mountains. The firſt vegetables and animals, our author ſuppoſes, inhabited theſe heights, while ſhells, madrepores, and ſea vegetables, were formed in the boſom of the waters. The number, in either ſituation, is ſaid to have been very great, 'when the heat was ſufficiently intenſe to put in action every principle of fecundation.'

At

At this time, many ſhells were produced, which in their calcareous ſubſtance abſorbed an immenſe quantity of water, and whoſe ruins afterwards formed our calcareous mountains, while, at the ſame time, the trees and other vegetables which covered the mountains produced, by their decompoſition, vegetable earth, and were afterwards drawn by the motion of the waters, with pyrites, and other combuſtible bodies, into the cavities of the earth, where they ſerved as aliment to the ſubterraneous fires.

While the waters abated in this way, were abſorbed in cavities, or ſoftened the ſurface of the earth, vegetables extended faſt on the ground which the water left uncovered, and, by their deſtruction, fed more copiouſly the magazines of internal fire. When the water fell back on a burning globe, and was returned in vapour, it produced the cracks and clefts in the quartz: the vitreous matters ſplit into fragments of various ſizes, ſometimes into ſmall pieces, and even into duſt, which, by their aggregation, formed afterwards grits, talcs, ſerpentines, and other ſubſtances, where the primitive glaſs, more or leſs altered, is ſtill perceived. Afterwards, by a more continued action, the moiſter elements converted all thoſe glaſſy powders into clays and earth, which differ only from grits and the firſt deſtruction of the primitive glaſs, by the attenuation of their conſtituent parts, which become ſofter, more ductile, and even putrid, by the conſtant action of the water. Theſe clays, afterwards become more dry by evaporation, and conſequently more ſolid, form ſchiſts and ardoiſes, which differ only in theſe reſpects from clay.

Theſe are the firſt and principal productions which we have traced from our author, as the united effects of fire and water. They have long preceded the ſecondary ones, which are of the ſame kind, but produced from the primary glaſſes. We ſhall follow our author in this path alſo.

Water, M. de Buffon obſerves, has acted in the ſame manner, and to greater advantage, on the calcareous earth, which all ariſes from the exuviæ of marine animals. This fluid, as he had before remarked, conſtitutes its principal part; and from the flux and reflux of the tide, which, from the firſt formation of water, ſeems to have agitated this vaſt ocean, theſe ſhells have been agitated, broken down, and mixed with the clay, the ſchiſtus, and the other earths in horizontal beds, or in ſtrata inclined according to the direction of the ſoil on which they were depoſited. In this way are formed the chalks, the marbles, and even the gypſums, which have acquired the vitriolic acid, by which they are diſtinguiſhed from calcareous earths, from the clays. The calcareous earths, thus left by the water, are alſo expoſed to the action of the air, and its aerial acid. This firſt acid has already exerciſed its power on the vitreous, calcareous, metallic, and earthy ſubſtances.

The rain water penetrates the ſurface of the earth, filters through its clefts, and, retained at laſt by the clay, appears in the form of ſprings, which owe their origin and their continuance to watery vapours, tranſported by the winds from the ſurface of the ſea to the continents. Theſe waters, or even their vapours, acting on the ſurface, or penetrating the ſubſtance of the calcareous earth, and the vitrified bodies, waſhes off the ſtony bodies with which they are filled, and which have formed new ſtones, while theſe molecules, again uniting, form ſtalactites, either tranſparent or opaque, according as the ſtony particles are reduced to a greater or leſs tenuity, ſo as to form bodies more or leſs homogeneous. Thus the quartz produces white rock cryſtals, or coloured ones, as amethyſts, &c. when there is any metal, particularly iron, in the neighbourhood, or in the way of the water charged with theſe quartzy particles. In this way the feldt ſpar alone, or joined with quartz, has produced the water ſapphire, the Labradore ſtone, the cats-eye, the wolf or the fiſhes-eye, the aventurine, and the opal, which, by their colour and fuſibility, ſhow their ſource. In the ſame mode, the ſchorl, or the ſchorl with quartz or feldt ſpar, has produced emeralds, topazes, rubies, and ſapphires of Brazil; the topaz of Saxony; the beryl; the peridot (the oriental chryſolite), garnets; hyacinth, and the tourmaline. Their weight and their fuſibility point out their origin.

All the vitreous ſtalactites, formed by the aggregation of the homogeneous parts of the three primitive glaſſes, are tranſparent: their ſubſtance is, however, glaſſy, and made up of alternate ſtrata of different denſities, as is ſhown by their double refraction. It is only remarkable, that in all the glaſſy ſtones, as in the rock cryſtal, there is one direction in which the rays are not divided, while, in the ſpars and the calcareous cryſtals, as the Iceland cryſtal, the light is divided in whatever way the tranſparent ſubſtance is preſented to it.

Quartz, feldt ſpar, and ſchorl, either alone or together, have produced, in our author's opinion, ſtalactites leſs pure and ſemi-tranſparent only when their particles are not ſufficiently ſmall to render the cryſtal homogeneous. Theſe are the agate, cornelian, ſardonyx, the praſe (an opaque green chryſolite), and the onyx, which have more of the properties of quartz than of feldt ſpar or ſchorl: many of theſe muſt be attributed to the decompoſition of quartz alone, the feldt ſpar not making a part of any which have not the yellow white of a cats-eye, and the ſchorl only mixing with thoſe which have a greater ſpecific gravity than the two others. In other reſpects, the very refractory ſtones are purely quartz.

The primitive jaſper, which is naturally opake, has only produced the opake ſtalactites which we find in the jaſpers of the ſecond formation. As they are quartz alone, impregnated with metallic vapours, they are equally refractory in the fire. Their ſpecific gravity ſhows there is no ſchorl; their colour, unlike

unlike the dead ſparkling of the cats-eye, that there is no feldt ſpar in their compoſition.

The mica, produced by the powders and exfoliations of the other primitive earths, is either tranſparent, or demi-tranſparent, as the laminæ are of leſs or greater thickneſs. From this laſt natural glaſs, by the medium of water, are formed the talcs, French chalk, the amianth, the jade, the ſerpentine, the lapis ollaris, and the ſmectites, which, by their unctuous poliſh and greaſy tranſparency, as well as by the hardneſs which they aſſume in the fire, and their refractory nature, ſhow that they are truly micaceous, ſoftened by the impreſſion of water.

When the water, charged with the molecules of theſe primitive earths, is at the ſame time impregnated or mixed with earthy or ferrugineous particles, it forms thoſe opake flints which differ from quartz only by their opacity; and, when theſe flints are united by a ſtony cement, they paſs under the name of pudding-ſtones, the impureſt forms of theſe vitreous matters, as the cement is always pretty ſoft. The primitive ſtones have formed, from the firſt, and by the ſole action of fire, the porphyries and the granites: theſe are the firſt abraſions and exfoliations of quartz, jaſper, feldt ſpar, ſchorl, and mica. Water had no ſhare in their production; and the vaſt maſſes of theſe bodies, which every where occur, ſhow that the aggregation reſulted from the operation of fire. They ſwam on this melted globe in the form of ſcoriæ, and united only by their affinities. The jaſper enters into the compoſition of porphyries alone; the four others form the granites.

The deſtruction of the grits, the clay, and the ſchiſtus, have produced the whetſtones, and the hones, which differ from flints only in that the flinty parts were reduced to clay before they were reunited; but their ſubſtance is the ſame: they are formed from the decompoſition of the primitive glaſſes by the medium of water. The calcareous matter, when homogeneous, becomes, as he has ſaid, tranſparent, and produces tranſparent cryſtals: when divided into larger maſſes, it forms alabaſter, and marbles of the ſecond formation, which are only opake aggregates, the ruins of thoſe ſhelly ſubſtances that formed the original ſtrata of marble. When the glaſſy and calcareous ſubſtances are mixed, they produce bodies of the nature of both, viz. marls, impure grits, in vaſt ſtrata; leſſer ſtrata of lapis lazuli, zeolytes, gun-flints, mill-ſtones, &c. Stones of this ſort are very numerous, and their different kinds are diſcovered by trying them with acids. They do not at firſt effervesce, and yet, at laſt, they convert theſe bodies into a jelly.

Vegetable, ſlimy, and bolar earths, which are principally formed of decompoſed vegetables and animals, and retain a portion of their fire, produce igneous bodies, and opake or tranſparent phoſphoric ſtalactites. It is leſs by the medium of water than the action of fire contained in this earth, that pyrites and other igneous ſtalactites have been produced: theſe have

have been all formed, in M. de Buffon's opinion, by the action of the fire contained in the reſidua of organized bodies. This fire has formed particular ſpheres, in which the earth, air, and water enter in ſmall quantities: the ſame fire, fixed by the acids, has produced pyrites; with alkalis it has formed diamonds and precious ſtones, which contain more fire than any thing elſe. As the vegetable earths contain iron, the pyrites poſſeſs a large proportion of it, while the heavy ſpar (barytes) though formed by the ſame earth, and of great denſity, contains none. Theſe ſpars are phoſphoreſcent, and have a great connection with pyrites and other precious ſtones; they are heavier than the ruby, the denſeſt of all ſtones: they 'preſerve the light a long time, and may very well be the matrices of theſe brilliant productions of nature.' The heavy ſpars are homogeneous in their ſubſtance, for the tranſparent, or the very thin ones, give but a ſingle reflection, like the diamond and other precious ſtones whoſe ſubſtance is equally homogeneous.

The pyrites give up their fire very eaſily: water alone will extract it; but the diamond and other precious ſtones of the ſame kind, whoſe hardneſs and texture ſhow that they have required a much longer time in their formation, preſerve obſtinately their fire, or only give it up on combuſtion.

The ſaline principles, which M. de Buffon reduces to three, viz. acid, alkali, and arſenic, produce, by their mixture with earthy or metallic matters, opake or tranſparent cryſtals, and form all the ſaline ſubſtances and all the metallic mineralizations.

Metals and their minerals of the firſt formation, by the action of the aerial acid, and of the ſalts of the earth, produce ſecondary mines, of which the greater part form opake concretions and ſome tranſparent ſtalactites. Fire, our author obſerves, acts on metals as water does on ſalts; but the metallic cryſtals are opake; the ſaline ones diaphanous or ſemi-tranſparent.

All theſe various ſubſtances, by the fire of volcanos, aſſume new forms. Some ſublime in ſulphur and ſal ammoniac; others exhale in vapours and aſhes; the more fixed parts form baſaltes and lavas; and their reſidua produce tripolis, puozzalanes, or clay; they undergo the ſame changes as the glaſſy bodies produced by the primitive fire.

Such is the ſyſtem of this great naturaliſt, which for its ingenuity we can ſcarcely praiſe too much. We have extracted it with much care, often in his own words, and having given it at ſo great length, we have no room for remarks. This ſyſtem points out the order in which he has examined the ſeveral ſubjects, and his opinion of their origin: in ſhort, it gives a very complete abſtract of his work; and if we do not again reſume it, we have done enough to fill up our account of the progreſſive ſteps of ſcience in this inquiſitive æra.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

Two Pair of Portraits, presented to all the unbiassed Electors of Great Britain; and especially to the Electors of Westminster. By John Horne Tooke. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

THE first pair of these portraits is William Pitt, lord Chatham, and Henry Fox, lord Holland; and the second, Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox; both which the author has contrasted, respectively with each other, in separate columns, through the chief incidents of their private life, as well as their public conduct. The portraits of the sons are not *whole lengths*, the author leaving them to be finished hereafter by some younger hand; but they are minutely delineated, and with much political discrimination. Not having it in our power to gratify our readers with the portraits, we shall subjoin the author's conclusion, as it affords some idea both of his sentiments and the manner in which the originals are described.

'The author now begs leave to propose two questions to his readers; which all men, he conceives, will, in their closets, answer in the same words. You have here been presented with four portraits (merely an assemblage of known indisputable facts.)

1st Question. Which two of them will you chuse to hang up in your cabinets; the *Pitts* or the *Foxes?*

2d Question. Where, on your consciences, should the other two be hanged?'

In these portraits, Mr. Horne Tooke has amply retaliated upon Mr. Fox for the Letter published in the newspapers, and ascribed to that gentleman, during the late contest in Westminster.

A full Report of the Speech of the right hon. Henry Grattan, in the House of Commons in Ireland. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

Mr. Grattan, after endeavouring to show the necessity of a reformation in the mode of providing for the clergy, proposed a commutation of tithes, or a general modus in lieu of them, according to which, he observed that the incomes of the clergy would be rather increased than diminished. His speech was animated and rhetorical; but on division of the house, the question was lost by a great majority.

DIVINITY.

Practical Sermons. By W. M. Trinder, LL. B. and M. D. 8vo. 5s. *in Boards.* Rivingtons.

These discourses appear to be the production of a benevolent author, and are well adapted to inculcate the Christian and moral virtues. We shall only observe, that with respect to the

act of Uniformity, paſſed in the reign of Charles II. which he mentions in his ſermon on education, as requiring to be enforced by the legiſlature; an act for the ſame purpoſe, and correſponding with the principle which he recommends, was paſſed in the reign of his preſent majeſty. According to the latter, ſchoolmaſters are enabled to put themſelves under the protection of law, without binding themſelves to conform to the liturgy of the church of England.

A Sermon preached for the Benefit of the Humane Society, on the 30th of March and the 27th of April 1788. *By the rev. Robert Pool Finch, D. D.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d. ſewed.* Rivingtons.

This ſermon is a pleaſing and elegant compoſition. Though the particular ſubject is the revival of the widow's ſon, recorded by St. Luke, yet Dr. Finch alludes to the different miracles of our Saviour of a ſimilar kind, and recommends to the audience the ſupport of that inſtitution, which at a humble diſtance, by ſecond means, purſues the ſame object.

The preface and the appendix are the works of Dr. Hawes. The latter contains various caſes from different correſpondents, many of whom ſeem to have caught a ray of their maſter's eloquence. We are glad to find that the ſociety perſiſt in doing ſo much ſervice; it is highly creditable to our country, and to the various aſſiſtants. We have only objected to ſome parts of the conduct of its inſtitutors, and to the language of their Reports.

A Sermon preached at Great Baddow, Eſſex, on Whitſun-Monday, 1788. *Being the firſt Anniverſary Meeting of a Society of poor Tradeſmen and Labourers in that Pariſh. By A. Longmore, LL. B.* 4*to.* 1*s. ſewed.* Robinſons.

It is undoubtedly proper to induce the poor to maintain themſelves, and it was a very judicious propoſal in Mr. Acland to extend this ſcheme, and to make the redundancies of one pariſh ſupply the deficiencies of another. This ſermon, preached at an anniverſary meeting of this kind, is extremely plain, and therefore well adapted for the purpoſe. The text is from Acts, chap. iv. verſe 32. 'And the multitude of them that believed were of one heart and of one ſoul: neither ſaid any of them, that ought of the things which he poſſeſſed was his own, but they had all things common.' The preacher explains the words of the apoſtle, and draws from them ſome earneſt recommendations of the plan which it was the buſineſs of the day to commemorate.

Diſcretion in Matters pertaining to Religion, recommended in a Sermon preached at the Primary Viſitation of the hon. and right rev. Father in God, Brownlow, Lord Biſhop of Wincheſter. By Owen Manning, B. D. 4*to.* 1*s.* White.

This is in very many reſpects an admirable diſcourſe, and in no one, ſo far as we can perceive, exceptionable. From the Apoſtle's anſwer to the Corinthian converts, 1 Cor. x. 23. where he ſpeaks of their partaking of the meat offered to idols,

and

and diſtinguiſhes, with great propriety, between what is lawful, and what is expedient, Mr. Manning deduces many obſervations applicable to life and manners: he ſpeaks, for inſtance, of the various opinions relating to the keeping of the Lord's day, and though ſome recreation on it may not be unlawful, it is certainly inexpedient to conſider it as a day of recreation merely, even after the ſervices of the church are ended. Things poſitively good, may be inexpedient, for obtruſive and indiſcriminate zeal, not only injures the adviſer, but even the cauſe of religion. In ſhort, our author's diſcourſe, ſuaviter in modo & fortiter in re, is truly an example not only of what is right, but of what is expedient.

The Advantages of Knowledge illuſtrated and recommended in a Sermon on the 30th of April, 1788. *By A. Rees, D. D. F. R. S.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Cadell.

This is an anniverſary ſermon, on the inſtitution of the new academy. Dr. Rees expatiates on the utility of knowlege in general, and particularly of religious knowlege, from Proverbs xix. 2. 'Alſo, that the ſoul be without knowlege it is not good.' The benefits which ariſe from it, are referred to three periods of life: that between the ſchool and manhood, when they are introduced to the inſtitution, thoſe in which they ſettle in the world or retire from it. Theſe advantages are well elucidated, and we ſhall extract a ſhort paragraph, which, though not new, we think of the higheſt importance.

'Knowlege is alſo favourable to virtue by the delicacy of taſte, elevation of mind, and refinement of manners, which uſually accompany it. There is a laudable pride, which ſprings from enlarged ſentiments and views. Perſons whoſe principal object is the cultivation of the underſtanding, will reverence the ſuperior powers of their nature, and ſhun thoſe exceſſes, and that meanneſs and brutality of vice, which degrade the faculties of the mind, and unfit them for the exerciſe of which they are capable, and to which they are habitually devoted.'

The advantages of religious education are explained with particular care. It is the cauſe of truth, and with the predilection which we have before pointed out in diſſenters, to their own ſyſtems: truth is ſuppoſed to conſiſt in the belief of their own tenets; yet their tenets are as diſtant from each other, if we regard the different ſects, as from the eſtabliſhed church, and it is not eaſy to ſay into what congregation the ſtudent will fall. The ſermon is concluded by remarks on the national univerſities, and animadverſions on ſubſcription: on the whole, it is judicious and judicious ſenſible: we regret only that we cannot praiſe it without exception. The new academy is deſigned for the education of young men deſigned for civil life, and for profeſſions, as well as for the miniſtry. Whatever relates to this part of the ſubject is unexceptionably good.

MEDICAL.

Some Account of the Walton Water, near Tewkesbury. By James Johnstone, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. *sewed.* Cadell.

This water near Tewkesbury very nearly resembles that of Cheltenham, and is probably equally effectual. The experiments are sufficiently clear in this point, though not always chemically exact. That part which appears to be most original relates to the use of the lymphatic glands. Our author supposes them to be designed to animalyze the absorbed fluids before they are mixed with the mass of blood: it is probably their true office, but the opinion is not new: we mentioned it, without arrogating the merits of a discovery, in our LVIIIth Vol. p. 188, and again more particularly in our LXIIId Vol. p. 27 and 31. Scrophulous swellings undoubtedly arise from obstruction of these glands; and our author is correct in directing the medicines to be applied to the lymphatics that lead to them, though when the obstruction is complete, it is not easy to perceive the source of their good effects. We must, however, in justice add, that this advice is not new: we saw it commonly employed in a public hospital in this metropolis, above twenty years ago.

The Medical Reform. 8vo. 2s. Deighton.

The catalogue of enormities committed by apothecaries has excited our author's indignation, and a society is, we find, instituted to bring about, if possible, a reform. One object of the reform is to confine apothecaries to their shops, and to bring them back to their real office, that of compounders of medicine only. The facts mentioned in this letter are probably true, but strict justice should be done: among the apothecaries are men of real candour and extensive knowlege; practitioners to whom a patient may with safety and confidence commit his health and his life. Men of this kind are not the fawning sycophants of a new acquaintance, or the enemies of physicians: they feel the importance of the trust; they wish for assistance to divide their anxiety, perhaps their responsibility. As it is inexpedient, and as it would be impracticable, to level the whole tree, it is equally impossible to lop its useless branches. Things must remain in their present state, for imprudent would be that practical physician, who would contend with those with whom his constant intercourse must necessarily be.

Another object of reform is the army and navy surgeons; but in this instance, the minister's rash young correspondent condemns without discrimination men superior (if we guess right at the author) to himself. In the hurry of an active and extensive war, surgeons not properly qualified would necessarily obtain posts; but the greater number whom we have seen, or heard of, joined an anxious attention and an unremitting perseverance to real skill. We believe the army and navy surgeons together to be at least equal in abilities, proportionally to their numbers, to the practitioners on shore. In our examinations, as authors, we have found them superior.

Another

Another object is the college of phyſicians. Much is ſaid of their conduct, and of Dr. Kentiſh: we can only judge of the propriety of his rejection, by a fair account of the queſtions and anſwers. Yet if, as we have been informed, he was examined by the ſucceſſive cenſors of two different years, the appearances will be more unfavourable. We have mentioned this report from motives of juſtice to each ſide; if it be erroneous, we ſhall be glad to be able to contradict it, for we know Dr. Kentiſh only through the medium of his publications.

NOVELS.

The Correſpondence of Two Lovers, Inhabitants of Lyons, publiſhed from the French Originals. 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 7*s.* 6*d.* Hookham.

Theſe pernicious volumes are copied in their ſtyle and manner from the Sorrows of Werter. They are worked up with equal paſſion, equal violence, but not equal intereſt. We can therefore let them paſs, as the danger is not very conſiderable, though their tendency and deſign demand the ſevereſt cenſure. An event of this kind happened, it was ſaid, in France ſome years ſince; but there is not the ſlighteſt reaſon to ſuppoſe theſe letters to be originals.

Diſintereſted Love, or the Modern Robin Grey. By a Widow Lady, 2 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 5*s.* Hookham.

With all our tenderneſs for theſe fluttering butterflies of the moment, we are compelled to conſign the 'Widow's work to oblivion. With all our regard to diſintereſted love, we muſt condemn the preſent example as the moſt trifling inſipid ſeries of adventures that we ever read.

DRAMATIC.

A Quarter of an Hour before Dinner; or, Quality Binding. A Dramatic Entertainment of one Act; as performed at the Theatre Royal in the Haymarket. 8*vo.* 1*s. ſewed.* Lowndes.

There are ſome inſects whoſe eggs or larvæ are not cruſhed by the ſtrongeſt force of a printer's preſs: they owe their ſafety to their minuteneſs. Trifles of this kind eſcape in the ſame manner: they offend againſt no ſtatute, for no critical code deſcends ſo low in the ſcale of literary exiſtence. We may be amuſed, therefore, at the pleaſantry of this little dramatic entertainment, either at the Theatre, or in the cloſet, without being obliged to produce our reaſons out of Ariſtotle for the ſource of our ſmiles.

The Dramatic Works of Mr. Edward Moore. 12*mo.* 3*s.* Lowndes.

This edition contains Mr. Moore's dramatic productions ſeparately from his other works, with which they were formerly joined. It affords a cheap copy of his two comedies, the Foundling and Gil Blas, and his tragedy of the Gameſter. A ſhort account of the author is added, with his portrait, and engravings of ſome of the ſcenes.

The

MISCELLANEOUS.

The Lady's Encyclopedia. By the rev. J. Scally, LL. D. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. in Boards. Murray.

This miſcellaneous work is calculated to afford both inſtruction and entertainment to young readers. The ſubjects of the firſt volume are poets, orators, legiſlators, and philoſophers; of each of whom a ſhort biographical account is given, with ſome remarks on their character and writings, &c. The ſecond compriſes an Engliſh grammar; a treatiſe on rhetoric and oratory; an abſtract of the art of poetry; the heathen mythology, with an epitome of Ovid's metamorphoſes; and a brief account of ſome of the moſt celebrated heroes and founders of empires. The third volume is allotted to geography, and likewiſe contains a ſhort introduction to the Copernican ſyſtem. The work appears to have been compiled with much induſtry, and includes a variety of information; but we cannot commend it either as ſufficiently accurate, or explicit.

Conſiderations on Parochial Evils. 8vo. 1s. L. Davis.

This letter is evidently written by a perſon of good ſenſe, knowledge, and obſervation. The deſign of it is to ſhow that the laws now ſubſiſting are ſufficient both for the proper management of the poor, and the prevention of thoſe evils which are the moſt general cauſes of poverty. The imperfect manner in which the laws are executed conſtitutes, in this author's opinion, the great ſource of the parochial grievances reſpecting the number and ſtate of the poor; to remedy which defect, he propoſes a judicious plan, highly worthy of the public attention.

Animadverſions on the preſent Government of the York Lunatic Aſylum. By W. Maſon. 8vo. 1s. Robſon.

The local nature of a great part of this pamphlet will prevent us from enlarging on it. A ſubject of more general concern is, the very proper and humane diſtinction between pariſh paupers and pariſh *lunatic* paupers. They are undoubtedly on a very different footing, and the latter require very particularly the aſſiſtance of the truly charitable and benevolent.

An Addreſs to the Inhabitants in general of Great Britain and Ireland. 8vo. 6d. Evans.

This is an artful gloſs over the miſeries of the ſlave trade, ſeemingly written with candour and moderation. As we have ſtated the points in diſpute, we may allow with our author, that ſlaves are often much happier, and in better circumſtances, when carried to the American iſlands, than in their own country. But when he contends that the inhabitants of the African kingdoms have a right to be ſold, and that we cannot, without injuſtice, infringe that right, we muſt neceſſarily ſmile. When an African ſhall ariſe, and in the true ſpirit of Moliere's beaten wife, exclaim, 'I ſuppoſe I have a mind to be ſold, and this merchant has a mind to ſell me, what right have you to interfere?' we ſhall then be able to anſwer. At preſent, whatever advantages ſome may experience, the riſk is too great to be eagerly coveted. The other argu-

arguments of this author have very little weight. The African trade is not of that vaſt national importance, that its annihilation would be ruinous; and the ſlaves are not tranſported with that attentive care of their healths and convenience, which we think even the intereſt of the merchant would dictate.

The advocates for the abolition of the ſlave trade are ruining their cauſe as faſt as they can, by their exaggerated and injudicious publications. The opponents may reſt theirs in ſafety on the grounds of national policy and national faith; if, at the ſame time, they take care not to ſhock humanity by their future miſconduct, or give cauſe for new complaints.

The Gentleman's Stable Directory; or, Modern Syſtem of Farriery. By William Taplin. 8*vo.* 4*s.* 6*d. in Boards.* Kearſley.

Gibſon, Bracken, and Bartlett, are the principal directors of the farrier, and, with ſome exceptions, they are uſeful guides. Our author ſteps forward with much confidence, and prefers his own work to every other. It is undoubtedly more extenſive, and contains ſome juſt remarks as well as uſeful practice; but it is overladen with words, with fulſome compliments to his own merit, with unjuſt criticiſms on his predeceſſors, and ſome errors which appear to be wholly his own. On the whole, we perceive no very great advantages in this work, which would induce us to reject our former aſſiſtants. Farriery muſt ſtill be a diſgrace to ſcience, till a man of real judgment ſhall ariſe, who, to an extenſive knowlege of the animal œconomy, ſhall join attention and obſervation of the diſeaſes of this valuable quadruped.

My own Life. By C. Eſte, Clerk. 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Egerton.

Mr. Eſte is known as the author of many eſſays in the public prints; and an erroneous account of his birth, parentage, education, &c. having lately appeared in one of the daily papers, he has, to undeceive the world, thought fit to become his own biographer. As a writer, he appears to be endowed with a reſpectable fund of abilities; but his ſtyle has not always that perſpicuity which is requiſite for the expeditious communication of ideas.

An Addreſs to the Public, by the Hon. Lady Hill. 4*to.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Bell.

It appears, that the late ingenious ſir John Hill, notwithſtanding his remarkable induſtry, died greatly in debt; whether occaſioned by the expence of publiſhing his 'Vegetable Syſtem,' or the want of proper œconomy, we ſhall not determine. Lady Hill imputes this misfortune entirely to the former of theſe cauſes, and particularly complains againſt lord Bute, for having prompted her deceaſed huſband to that great undertaking. It farther appears, that ſhe has preſſed his lordſhip on the ſubject of a pecuniary conſideration; but failing in this expedient, ſhe is reduced to embrace the laſt reſource of the unfortunate, and to implore the beneficence of the public. We ſincerely ſympathize with her diſtreſſes, and wiſh we could effectually relieve her.

Ruddiman Improved. 12*mo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Buckland.

The profeſſed deſign of this editor is to omit what was redundant, to ſupply what was defective, and to correct what appeared faulty in former editions of Ruddiman's Grammar. The alterations which he has made are, in general, judicious; but entertaining the opinion that his little work may admit of farther improvement, he has printed only a few copies more than were neceſſary for his own uſe; and ſolicits the remarks of thoſe maſters of grammar-ſchools who may happen to peruſe the preſent edition.

Obſervations on a Deſign for improving the Navigation of the River Severn. 8*vo.* 1*s.* Cadell.

Conſidering the evident commercial advantages which reſult to a country from the facility of internal navigation, it may juſtly appear ſurpriſing that any oppoſition ſhould be made to the improvement of the navigation of the Severn, at preſent in a very defective ſtate. Shrewſbury, however, Glouceſter, and other places in the Weſt, have objected to the plan of improvement, upon the idea that many land-owners would be injured by floods, in conſequence of the adjacent locks and wears. The author of the Obſervations before us refutes, in the cleareſt manner, the various objections which have been made to the propoſed improvement: it may therefore be hoped, that a meaſure of ſuch public utility will meet with no farther obſtruction.

A plain Narrative of the much lamented Death of the rev. Henry Peckwell. 12*mo.* 6*d.* Barker.

This pamphlet is erroneouſly entitled a Narrative; being nothing more than a tedious ſermon in the Methodiſtical ſtyle, with ſcarcely a word of Dr. Peckwell.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE have received a very candid and polite Letter from the author of a Treatiſe on the Cancer of the Breaſt. When we get the work, we ſhall certainly attend to it with particular care, as it is an object very intereſting to humanity to relieve ſo diſtreſſing a complaint.

WE have made the enquiry which our Correſpondent from Worceſter deſired. The Tranſlation of the Bible is not yet publiſhed, and the time of publication is uncertain.

WE believe our Correſpondent from Ipſwich has drawn the compariſon unfairly. We examine as many books as any Reviewers within our limits, and more early than ſome of the publications which he mentions. We acknowlege the delay of which he accuſes us; but we hope to prevent ſuch accuſations in future. The delay was owing only to the number and importance of the works, never to our inattention. The performance which he mentions ſhall be reviewed very ſoon.

THE requeſt of Amator we have not at preſent leiſure to anſwer ſo explicitly as we could wiſh. We have on ſeveral occaſions incidentally treated of the hiſtorical ſubject which he mentions; but he will find ſomething ſaid of it in vol. XXXI. p. 326.—He will alſo find an account of the Eſſays in vol. XLIV. p. 321, &c. and in vol. XLVIII. p. 119, &c.